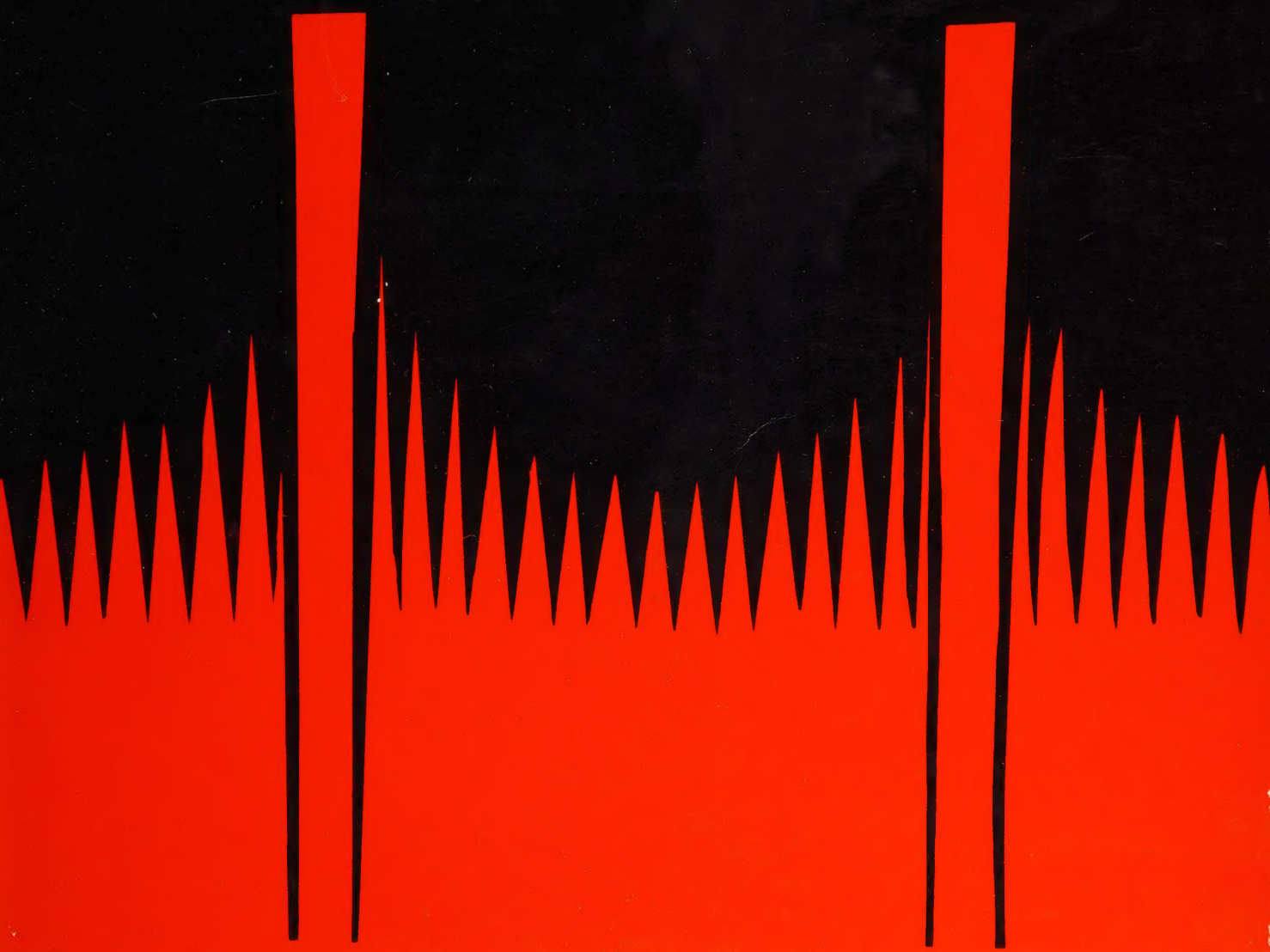


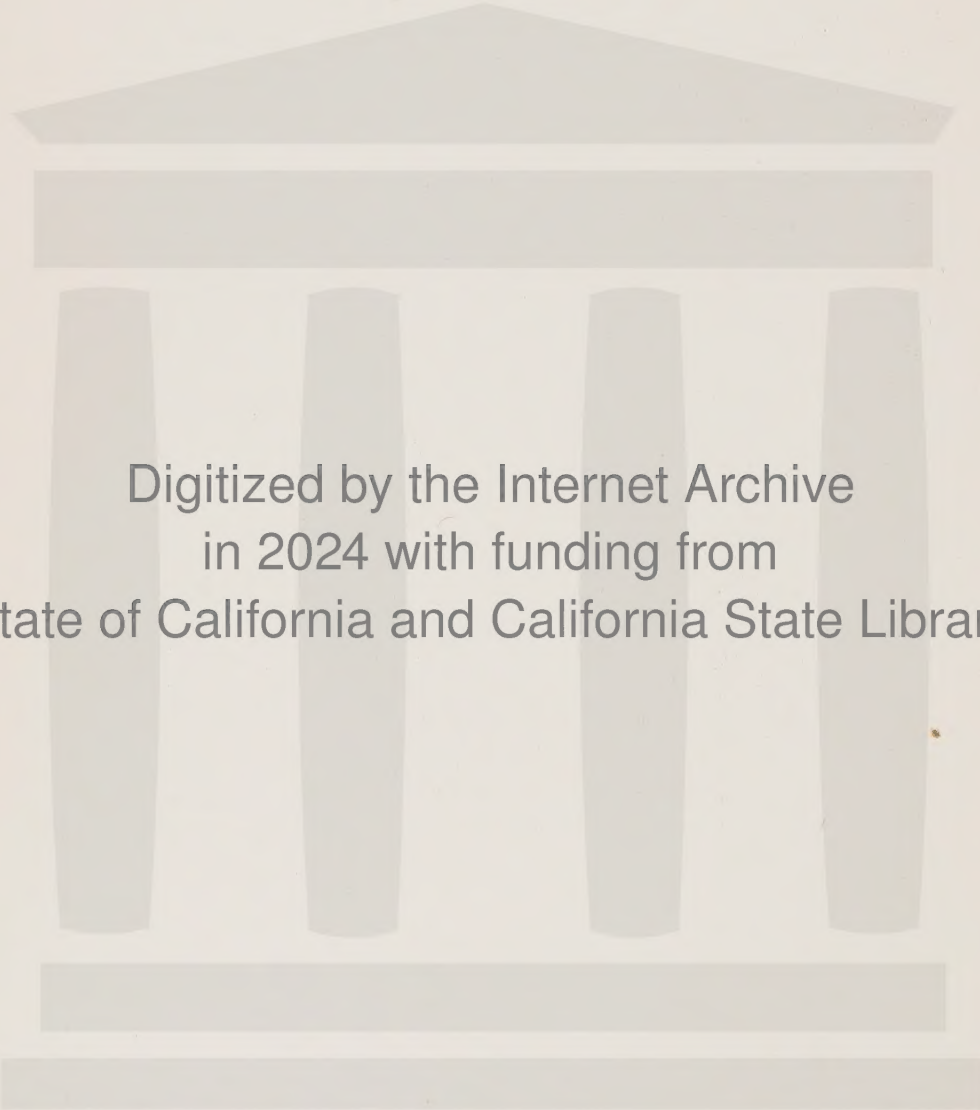
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# Urban Resource Development

San Francisco Part I Volume I



Stanford University  
June 1970



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HOUSING AND URBAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT  
FOR THE  
CITY OF SAN FRANCISCO

Robert De Velbiss  
Dept of City planning  
San Francisco

*Courtesy of  
Ted Schmedes  
899 Green St.  
San Francisco*

Volume I

An Interdisciplinary Study  
in Systems Design at  
Stanford University  
Winter and Spring Quarters 1970

Final Report  
June 1970

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The cover design is by Dr. Lusignan.

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# Chapter I

## URBAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT FOR THE CITY OF SAN FRANCISCO

### A. DISCUSSION OF SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The American city is breaking down. Deterioration in its physical structures and in its social and political institutions is eroding its economic base and sapping its vitality. The crisis of the city is rooted in the disparity between the rigid permanence of the citys' institutions and physical structures and the dynamically changing requirements of its inhabitants and of society in general. This report is the product of an interdisciplinary team of students which examined the interactions of the urban environment in an attempt to develop an urban design for San Francisco and a realistic plan for implementation of this design.

There is a clear need for the University to become actively involved in the problems of todays' cities. A great deal of research is needed in a wide range of topics impacting on the urban situation. They range from transportation systems to city management to mechanisms for community-initiated planning. There is an absence of understanding of how the city works, and yet, we are now, and will continue to be a nation composed of urban aggregations. The increasing difficulties of urban areas make it imperative that the University emerge as an active and creative force in urban development. Involvement must come in at least two ways. The talents of a wide variety of University scholars are sorely needed in order to achieve a basic understanding of the urban situation. The intimate contact which this requires will in itself be a direct contribution, leading to opportunities for students of many different disciplinary backgrounds to apply their studies first hand and to prepare themselves for valuable service in the community.

This study team was assembled as part of a systems design course in the School of Engineering. In past years, similar interdisciplinary teams of Stanford graduate students have

designed Mars exploration vehicles, weather satellite and prediction systems, educational television broadcast systems for developing countries, and an earth resource satellite system. Most recently, an analysis of marine resources and technology was conducted. While each of these projects was principally a design problem, substantial contributions were made by non-engineering students to assist in defining the proper objectives and in developing a practical system and a realistic plan for its implementation.

In spite of this variety of interdisciplinary experience, the present study was a marked departure from it. As complex as any one of the previous subjects was, the urban crisis is at least an order of magnitude more difficult to grasp. The technical aspects of a city (such as services and physical design) might be likened to the exposed part of an iceberg. It is the most obvious manifestation of the phenomenon, but there is a lot more to it. Technology and the physical attributes of the city are a relatively small part of the whole, and the remainder is decidedly non-technological. The importance of the contributions from the non-technical professions was far greater than ever before.

As a result of the recognition of the need for a holistic perspective, faculty and students from nearly all of the University schools were engaged in this study. Although the preponderance of individuals were from the School of Engineering, the Schools of Education, Business, Law, Medicine, and Humanities and Sciences were well represented. Because it was important not to be bound to a university point of view, individuals from government, business, and especially communities within the city of San Francisco were actively consulted.

An accumulation of background information began during the summer of 1969 in Washington, D.C. A group of three graduate students gathered reports from all of the federal agencies concerned with urban affairs and interviewed key personnel in each agency. This background information was supplemented



during the course of the study by guest speakers. Local, state, and federal government authorities and representatives from industry and local communities were invited to insure that all viewpoints relating to the study were heard. A guest speakers list appears in this volume. Additional information was solicited from individuals and from industrial and governmental organizations in the Bay Area. The Stanford University Library personnel unearthed additional material and maintained the bulk of our collected references.

The study was organized into four phases. In the initial three weeks of the project, the students worked in heterogeneous groups. This period was to familiarize the study team with the nature of the problems to be encountered and to acquaint students with other team members. But most importantly, this phase was a "brainstorming" period. This activity was encouraged by arranging the composition of each heterogeneous group so a variety of backgrounds and points of view were represented. This device was considered essential for the stimulation of cross-disciplinary interaction. The remainder of the six month period was divided into three study phases during which the students worked in specialty groups. These working groups are identified in the list of participants.

Management and coordination of the study was achieved by several techniques. Leaders selected from the working groups, with faculty advice, were responsible for coordinating the team study. A number of interface groups, formalizing the contacts among several working groups, were established to facilitate concentration on some important problems which required the simultaneous attention of several groups. These interface groups were centered on land use, housing systems, transportation, community human potential, and labor and the business situation. Interdisciplinary cooperation was fostered by this formal arrangement.

The content of this report is a recognition of the fact that the six months of study could only be a beginning. The

current situation in the city - its state and direction - is documented in the first part of the report. This is followed by a number of recommendations and proposals. Some of these proposals are quite specific and were developed by study participants who concentrated on particular urban problems. A number of alternative approaches to urban problems are also outlined. These suggestions are deemed "worthy of careful exploration. Taken together, this material provides a basis for further study and action.

One of the most important consequences of this study was the indication of what students can and cannot do in the city. They can penetrate the institutions of city management sufficiently to gain an understanding of where and how most major decisions are made and carried out. Yet, their ability to ever have a significant direct effect on the decision-making processes is minimal. In the realm of community projects, they can participate and counsel, but their potential to initiate new ideas is and should remain small, largely because of the difference in values and the desirability of leadership originating in the community. Their most important characteristic is their ability to move from one constituency to another with greater ease than anyone entrenched in either. However, it is now necessary for students identified with university research which is often considered by many to be distant and "objective" to become involved directly. This requirement emanates from the communities which are demanding assistance in their self-improvement activities. Students can help to build an understanding of city dynamics and management in the communities, and perhaps, bring a better understanding of community problems to the decision makers.

Another important result was the confirmation of the need for a regional approach to urban problems which have a regional character. Relations between population and environment, workers and jobs, destination and transportation facilities, and

public services and public revenues can be brought into balance only by effective Bay Area-wide planning and government. San Francisco is the nucleus of the Bay Area and the communities around it have a stake and a role in the alleviation of its difficulties most of which are in reality area-wide problems. A principal goal of planning for the city of San Francisco is the achievement of effective metropolis-wide government. Specific city plans in such sectors as transportation, pollution control, economic development, and housing should be compatible with what is likely to occur elsewhere in the Bay Area, but the proper unit of planning is the whole Bay Area metropolis. Consequently, the cities of the Bay Area must strive for metropolitan governmental authority over certain critical aspects of the whole area's activity and development.

## B. OVERVIEW

### 1. City overall

Across the blue waters of the Bay, the ragged yet crystalline beauty of San Francisco's skyline makes an impressive sight. Set off by the sails of small boats, the downtown skyscrapers provide a striking contrast to the gentle green hills of the Presidio, or to the city's two great bridges. From such a vantage point, the charm and beauty of San Francisco seem indisputable.

As one travels in the city, this feeling of charm and elegance can be easily reinforced. For example, leaving the yacht harbor with its cluster of masts, you might pass the quaint beauty of the Palace of Fine Arts, and then drive through neighborhoods of trim and attractive Victorians, brownstones, and middle and high-rise apartments on the way to any of several nearby residential areas of the city. The destination might be Russian Hill, or perhaps along Jackson somewhere west of Van Ness, or possibly a home in the Richmond District. Each of these areas has a flavor of its own, and adds something special and unique to the character of San Francisco.

That character is of a very complex nature, however, more than a superficial look is required to understand what living in San Francisco can mean. Driving down Van Ness from the wharf, for example, if you turn left down California and past the great hotels, you soon reach Chinatown. Walking down Grant, past the small shops and fancy restaurants, above the neon lights you can catch a glimpse of another San Francisco, not quite so charming. The small apartments, many whose weak yellow lights hide behind partially drawn, faded curtains, are an abrupt reminder of the San Francisco that the tourist allows to slip from his mind. Redevelopment is currently trying to eliminate the miserable, sordid side of the city, by building highrise apartments, new churches, and town houses. But redevelopment creates new problems. What has happened to the former habitants of the Western Addition? The churches, apartments, hotels, and Japanese Trade Center have replaced many battered tenements and run-down C Victorians. Many of the tenants were very poor, the Western Addition being one of the areas with the most concentrated unemployment and sub-standard housing in San Francisco at the time of the 1960 census. There were not enough units in the redevelopment project to house the area's former inhabitants at prices which they could afford. Where have they gone? Could it be that they are somewhere in San Francisco creating a new poverty area or that they have moved into another already established poverty area?

They are a part of the ugly side of San Francisco. Of its 740,000 inhabitants in 1960, 13.5% of all families had incomes of less than \$3,000 per year, the poverty level, and another 17.1% had incomes in the \$3,000-5,000 per year range, the deprivation level. Simultaneously, the ranks of the rich expanded: only 13% of the city's families earned over \$7,000 per year, while more than 22% earned over \$10,000 per year in 1960. The division between rich and poor has been widening.



The trend was coupled by an outflow of families from the city. In 1950 78.1% of the population consisted of family members, while in 1960 only 62.3% fit this category.

The number of immigrants and minority groups has also expanded posing critical problems. The immigrants often have very few marketable skills, and they have to cope with the problems of a new language and culture as well. The blacks, immigrants from our own east or south often have similar problems--most do not have the skills necessary to enter business, finance, real estate, or trade, the four areas of San Francisco's job market which is presently growing. In fact, two of every three jobs in the city are either in one of these four fields or in the trained service category.

These trends have had unfortunate results, for both the foreign and domestic immigrants, and for the city as a whole. The disadvantaged have become centralized in pockets of poverty--the Chinese in Chinatown, the Latinos in the Mission District, and the Blacks in Hunter's Point, Sunnydale area and around Filmore street. The problems in these areas, explored in more detail later in this report, are more problems of subsistence, of a lack of food or shelter than of psychological deprivation. Lack of opportunity to improve ones' circumstances, or to exert much control over ones' future, can be significant factors in depriving an individual of motivation and initiative.

To better understand the problems of the city in America today, this report attempts to focus on the heart of the problem: the social, psychological, and economic conditions which have led to the present state of San Francisco.

Three concentrated areas of poverty in San Francisco--the Western Addition, the Inner Mission District, and Sunnydale (adjacent to Hunter's Point), were chosen as focus points for this study, along with a more stable, middle-class area--the Sunset District.

## 2. Community Focus Areas

### a. Western Addition

Western Addition is bounded by Pacific Heights in the north, Van Ness avenue in the east, Fell street in the south, and by Golden Gate Park in the west. The population in 1969 was 102,000, with 40% black and 44% white. This report is concerned with the section that Redevelopment has designated A-2, with the approximate boundaries of Geary, Turk, Divisadero, and Filmore streets. The A-2 areas is composed almost entirely of Blacks.

Upon entering A-2 from the south via Filmore street we are confronted by a direct contrast from the vision of San Francisco which a tourist may have. Instead of the flourishing department stores and hotels of which San Francisco boasts, we find numerous businesses closed; those stores that remain open are predominantly bars and pawnshops. We notice Black Power slogans and "Free Huey" posters on the boarded windows of closed shops. Contrasting with this is an occasional lot which has been razed; nothing on it except a sign designating it as a Redevelopment A-2 project site. We also cannot fail to notice the number of older people on street-corners; some drunk, all just standing around talking. The corner of McAllister and Filmore is one such place where what has been called "street-corner society" exists. A-2 has its problems: drugs, alcoholics, unemployment, low income, etc. However, as one moves away from A-2, the problems of Western Addition diminish somewhat; the population becomes more established and stable in comparison.

The A-2 areas is the center of the poverty problem in Western Addition. In 1966, 11% of its inhabitants were unemployed, and 25% were subemployed. The situation is worse today. The housing situation is not good, either; many of the homes are quite old, quite a few deteriorating. As one moves away from Filmore, a few low-cost, concrete apartments are visible, past efforts of redevelopment.

b. Mission District

The Mission District, bounded roughly by the Central Freeway to the north, Market street and Castro street to the west, 30th street and Alemany to the south, and the James Lick Freeway to Army, then Third street and 16th street to the east, includes some 132,000 people by the latest estimates. Although the climate and terrain in the Mission are perhaps the most favorable in San Francisco, the area also has some of the city's worst problems. In terms of employment, housing, and physical environment, education, and health and social service needs, the area is faced with severe problems. The quality of life is low for many inhabitants.

The Mission traditionally has been the first home of many immigrants to the city. Since 1930, these immigrants have included large numbers of Mexican-Americans, Mexicans, and Central and South Americans; Orientals and people of the Pacific islands have also settled in the Mission in recent years. In addition, some American Indians have moved into the area, as have some Blacks leaving redevelopment areas elsewhere in San Francisco. The generally low educational and skill levels of these people, coupled with language problems, have placed a premium on lower cost housing and low skill jobs in the Mission District. The decrease in such jobs and the exodus from San Francisco of light industry has been coupled with rising unemployment for the Mission, now more than twice the national average.

Most of the housing in the Mission area was built twenty to forty years ago, and reflects an extremely intensive use of land. The housing quality is deteriorating in an environment that was designed to be twice as dense as the rest of the city. Too little low cost housing, plus a continuing influx of people, has led to overcrowding well above the city average. The closeness of the downtown business district is resulting in a decrease in lower cost housing, as middle



income people compete for living quarters; the opening of BART (Bay Area Rapid Transit system) is expected to accentuate this trend.

Social services are also a problem in the Mission District. The area schools have been unable to handle either the increasing numbers of students, without overcrowding, or the special education and language problems of the minority students. The result has been a very high dropout rate, maybe 50%, many teenagers leaving school without acquiring skills or education sufficient to escape the ghetto. This has been coupled with the previously mentioned increase in crime in the area. Health and social services are in general inadequate, and recreational facilities and open spaces generally lacking.

c. Sunnydale

The Sunnydale housing project, owned entirely by the San Francisco Housing Authority, is located about one quarter mile north of the Cow Palace, in southern San Francisco. In many ways the community is typical of the environment and conditions of the poor in the midst of middle class society; at the same time it has characteristics that distinguish it from other poverty areas in San Francisco.

There are somewhere between four and five thousand people in Sunnydale, which is situated on approximately sixty-five acres of rolling hillside adjacent to John McLaren Park. The ethnic composition is approximately 2/3 black, 20% white, and 15% Latino, Indian, Samoan and Oriental. Ten years ago the project was less than 5% black, but a shift toward integration in Housing Authority policy, and the destruction of some all black projects in the Hunter's Point area lead to the current mix. The rate of change in the ethnic composition seems to be decreasing, stabilizing the racial proportions at their current states.

The community is in some ways a miniaturization of the habitat of the poor in American cities. It is surrounded on

all sides save the north (John McLaren Park) by well entrenched white, middle-class Visitacion Valley. The one exception is the Eichler towers four blocks to the east, which house approximately one hundred families on rent subsidies. Otherwise, Sunnydale is separated by some five miles from the larger concentration of poverty in the Hunter's Point-Bayview area.

The problems of Sunnydale are typical of the problems of the poor throughout America, and do not recognize racial distinctions. About 75% of the families are supported entirely by welfare; and, by community estimates, less than 10% of the homes have a father in residence--though over half have an adult male living in them from time to time. Jobs are scarce, and the residents are relatively unskilled. Health and recreational facilities are limited, and the schools are not well suited to the problems of the young and impoverished. Overt crime, such as purse snatching, has significantly decreased in the past two or three years, but a recent bombing indicates large scale violence is more than a remote possibility. A considerable drug problem exists among young people 15-25 years old, according to many residents.

Though a number of community organizations command considerable following, none has the capability of mustering the support and power required to effect the significant changes necessary to bring Sunnydale into the mainstream of American life. Each suffers from a lack of experienced and dedicated leadership, a deficiency which seems fated to continue in a housing project that prohibits those who climb above a certain income level to remain.

#### d. Sunset

As another target community, the Sunset section of San Francisco represents another facet of the City - a facet sometimes overlooked in view of the overwhelming problems faced in other sections of this urban environment. As an

area particular to San Francisco, or in a national context, Sunset can be described as "Middle America".

The physical boundaries of Sunset are Golden Gate Park on the north, the ocean and the Great Highway on the west, lower Parkside on the south, and, on the east, the wealthier Twin Peaks and St. Francis Wood section. Sunset is 95% white; the population in the 1960 census was 102,000 (which includes Parkside). The residents, primarily middle-class homeowners, are a mixture of white and blue collar workers, with many civil servants such as policemen or firemen. The population is extremely stable; many of the people have lived in their houses since they were built. The people of Sunset are growing older along with their community. All housing is approximately of the same design — neat, box-like units, lined in monotonous rows, along wide, straight streets. One side of the street looks like a mirror reflection of the other side. There is no industry in Sunset, and the small commerce there is located mainly on two streets. The very quiet residential atmosphere is accentuated by numerous churches, schools, and several parks. School playgrounds are the usual places where children gather. However, there are relatively few children in the area. On a Saturday, one is likely to see a few elderly people watering their lawns or a man tinkering with his car. Otherwise, there is not much activity.

Sunset is not so much conservative or reactionary as apathetic. There is little political or community participation other than voting. Residents are troubled by higher property taxes and the rising cost of living; they are concerned over rising crime, safety in the streets and parks, and quality education; and along with these middle class phobias, there is a growing fear over events occurring outside Sunset in the national and local news.

Certainly, this description distinguishes Sunset from the other target areas in this report. Inclusion of Sunset,



however, is essential in attempting to comprehend the diversity of the component-communities and the complexity of administration within San Francisco. Inclusion of Sunset in a study of San Francisco is ultimately important in understanding the scope of the urban problem, and in prescribing a more effective, interactive, and cooperative environment for the city and its inhabitants.



## Chapter II

### CURRENT STATE AND DIRECTION OF THE CITY

#### A. PHYSICAL STATE

##### 1. Physical Community Design

Introduction - San Francisco is the corner grocery store, the sidewalk flower vendor, the crowded Muni-bus and cable car. That is to say, San Francisco is characterized by people and the personal manner in which their lives interact. This personal interaction has been perpetuated by the human scale of the physical structures which stimulate a sense of identity and belonging for the individual person. A major part of the existing building complex consists of small, individual living units knit together to provide a calm, orderly background for the increasingly complicated lives of the inhabitants. The intimacy of the individual units is enhanced by the intricacy of their mutual physical relationships. The bay and its surrounding hills are also important focal points adding to the romance of the area. With respect to new technology, some criteria for consideration, then, include preservation of the hills, focal attention on the bay, and the preservation of an orderly background on a human scale while continuing the tradition of individual expression.

San Francisco is, at present, in a state of slow physical deterioration. Its urban environmental areas are paying the price for massive defective force working obscurely in the background. To be precise, San Francisco is a captive held in the tenacles of absentee landowners. It is regarded not as a place to live but as a place to make money. Nevertheless, San Franciscans have attempted to maintain the historical fervor of this focal point of the Bay Area by asking why the physical state is angling downward.

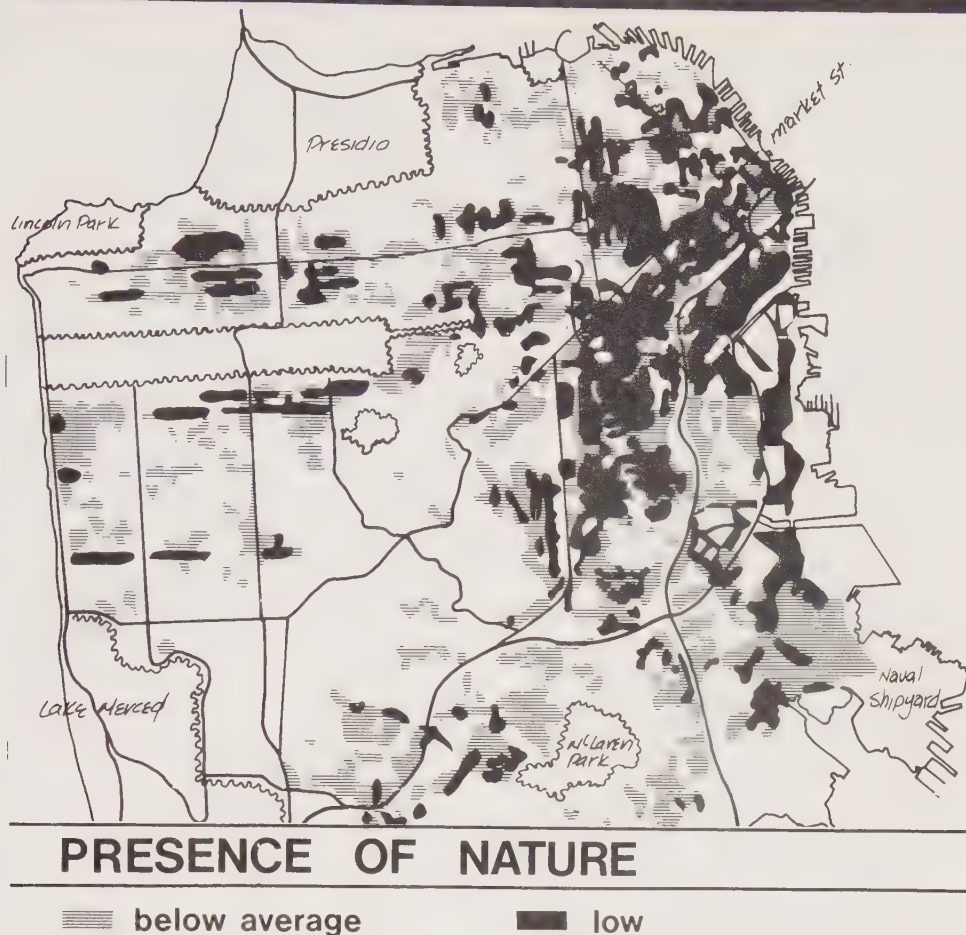
The presence of nature -- the quantity and quality of natural elements such as trees, shrubbery, flowers, grass, and water -- has proved to be an important factor. The most prestigious and expensive residential areas without exception,

rate high in nature content. This value comes in part because of the harshness found in a world of only buildings, pavement, and automobiles. South of Market, Central Mission, Midtown Residential, and West Nob Hill are the most extensive areas with little or no landscaping. These areas are characterized by high residential densities and insufficient open space as seen in Fig. II-1. In blocks without landscaping the buildings, pavement, overhead wires, and vehicles are visually dominant and unrelieved. Under such circumstances the adverse effect is intensified by dull street fronts, littered streets, and heavy traffic.

The quality of maintenance has become an indicator of well-being and status (Fig. II-2). The cleanliness and state of repair of sidewalks, streets, yards, and buildings is one of the most important physical characteristics of a good residential area. The Mission street corridor is a concentrated area where people living along the street have ceased to care about it. The heavy volume of traffic might possibly be the cause of unswept sidewalks and uncared for yards. Often heavy traffic can lead to a withdrawal by people from the street. The larger the volume of traffic, the more a street belongs to automobiles and the less it is perceived to belong to the people. But, in areas such as South of Market, Central Mission, and Hayes Valley (Hunter's Point Area), high population density is found together with low ratings for maintenance.

Variety of building types, architectural character, landscaping, scale, colors, and pattern are criteria for the visual interest of street facade. The visual richness of a street -- the amount of interesting and pleasing detail -- affects the enjoyment of the street as a place for children to play and adults to walk and meet with friends (Fig. II-3). Hills and open space consistently generate high ratings. The street facades of those buildings on hillsides are more interesting, more varied through their adaptation to sloping land. Land-





CRITERIA: The quantity and quality of natural elements -- such as trees, shrubbery, flowers, grass, and water -- within and visible from the block.

Figure II-1. HIGH RESIDENTIAL DENSITIES  
AND INSUFFICIENT OPEN-SPACE

Source: From Social Reconnaissance Survey, Fall, 1969, conducted by Marshall Kaplan, Gans and Kahn for the Dept. of City Planning as part of the Urban Design Study.

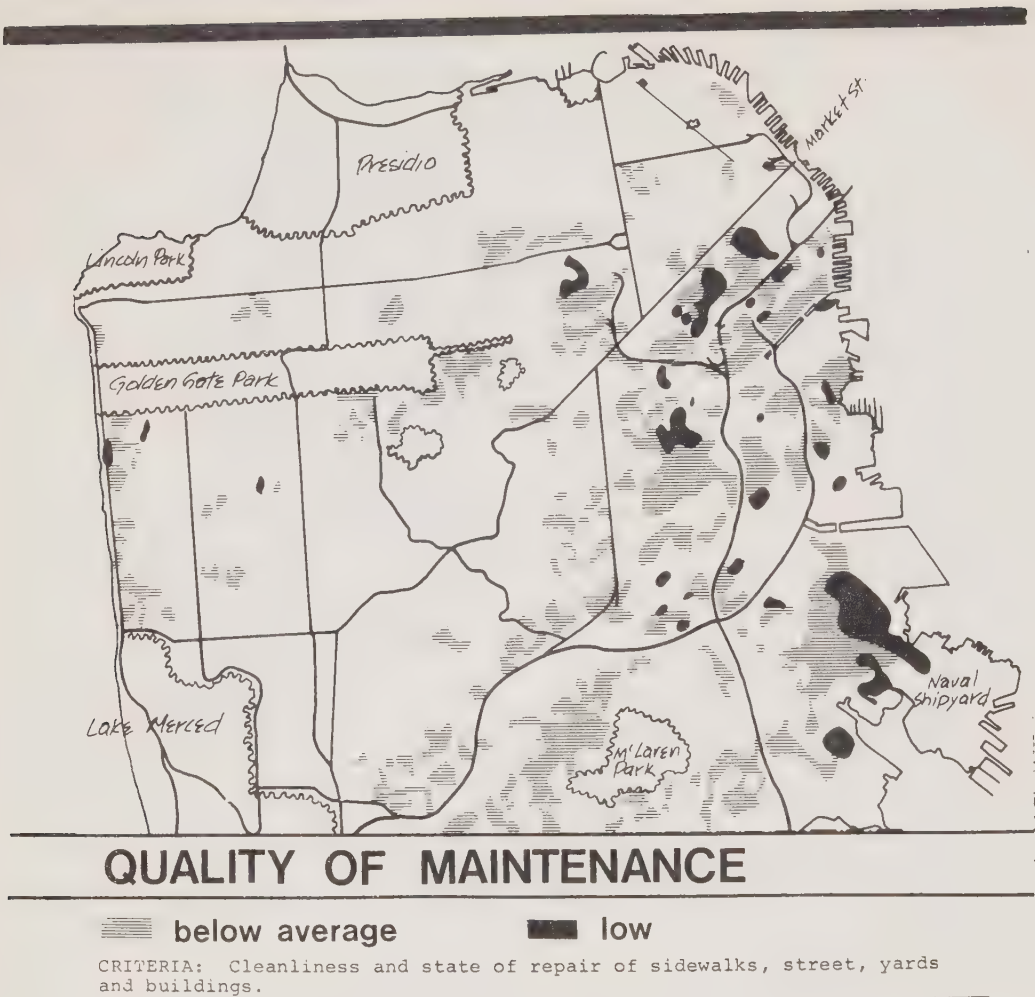


Figure II-2. QUALITY OF MAINTENANCE

Source: From Social Reconnaissance Survey, Fall, 1969, conducted by Marshall Kaplan, Gans and Kahn for the Dept. of City Planning as part of the Urban Design Study.

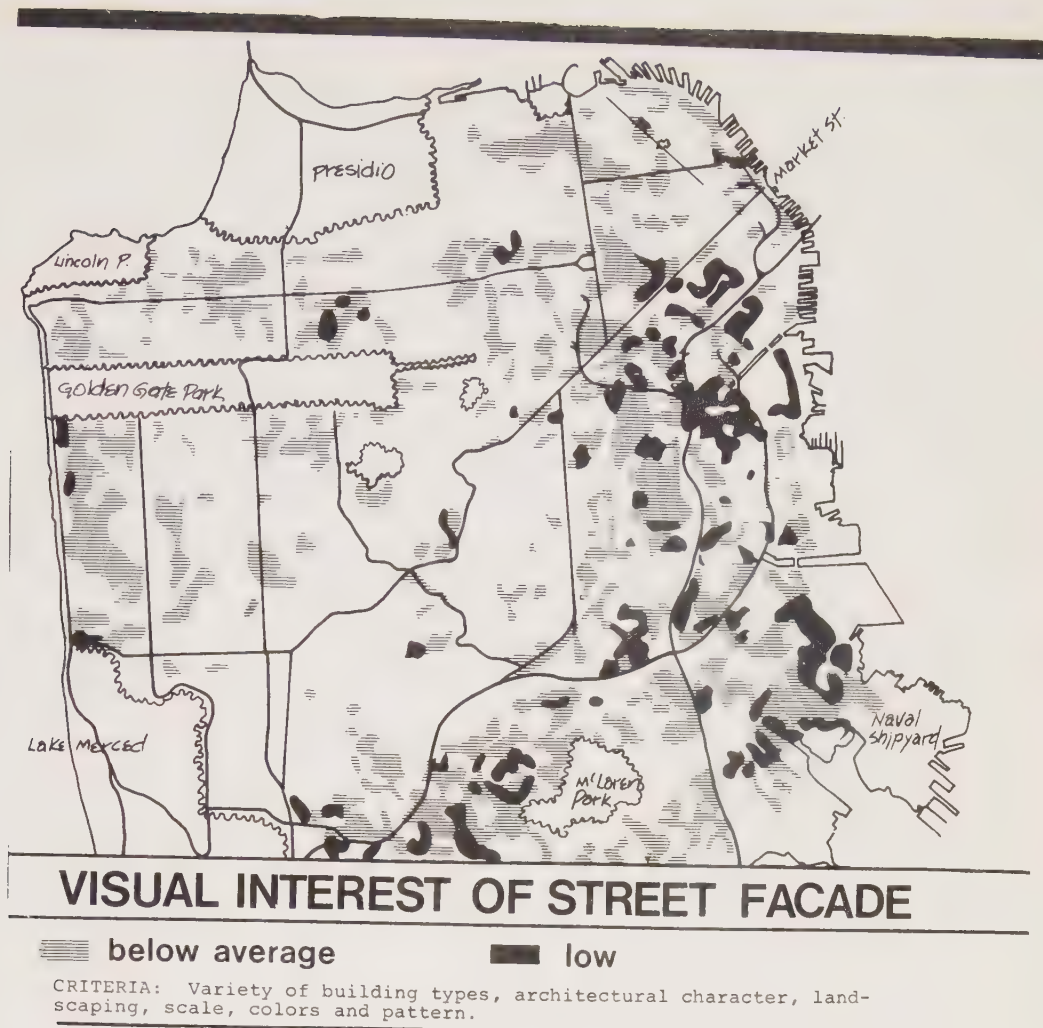


Figure II-3. VISUAL INTEREST OF STREET

Source: From Social Reconnaissance Survey, Fall, 1969, conducted by Marshall Kaplan, Gans and Kahn for the Dept. of City Planning as part of the Urban Design Study.

scaped open space sets up a strong contrast with adjacent development and offers new ways of looking at otherwise typical street fronts. Surprisingly, there are areas of San Francisco characterized by low maintenance but with high ratings for visual interest of street facade. For instance, low income areas in the Mission district have created interesting environments. The low quality of the dwellings of the physical environment has been somewhat compensated for by what the people themselves have brought to their neighborhoods (e.g., the Mission Coalition). These areas have created a potential for self renewal with government assistance.

As seen in Fig. II-4 the walking distance to open spaces modified by size and variety of facilities within parks in an intensely developed city like San Francisco is extremely important. Those areas of the city with the greatest population density -- Chinatown, West Nob Hill, Central Mission, and South of Market -- are the most deficient in public open space. These areas also have the heaviest concentrations of the poor, very young, and elderly. Because of their lack of mobility, they are the most adversely affected by the scarcity of accessible open space. The major park areas are located in the western one-half of the city where more families have their own private backyards and their own cars.

The breadth, extent, composition of view and the significance of objects viewed from the street are valued for many reasons -- for their innate beauty and the psychological sense of open space they impart to a crowded city (Fig. II-5). The absence of view frequently coincides with and intensifies environmental deficiencies. Most areas of the city have average or better views in at least one direction. Inner Mission contains the largest area of low-rated views in any direction. In some cases buildings along low-rated view areas may have good views from upper or rear windows. This is





## DISTANCE TO OPEN SPACE

below average

low

CRITERIA: Walking distance to open space modified by size and variety of facilities within park.

Figure II-4. WALKING DISTANCE TO OPEN SPACES

Source: From Social Reconnaissance Survey, Fall, 1969, conducted by Marshall Kaplan, Gans and Kahn for the Dept. of City Planning as part of the Urban Design Study.

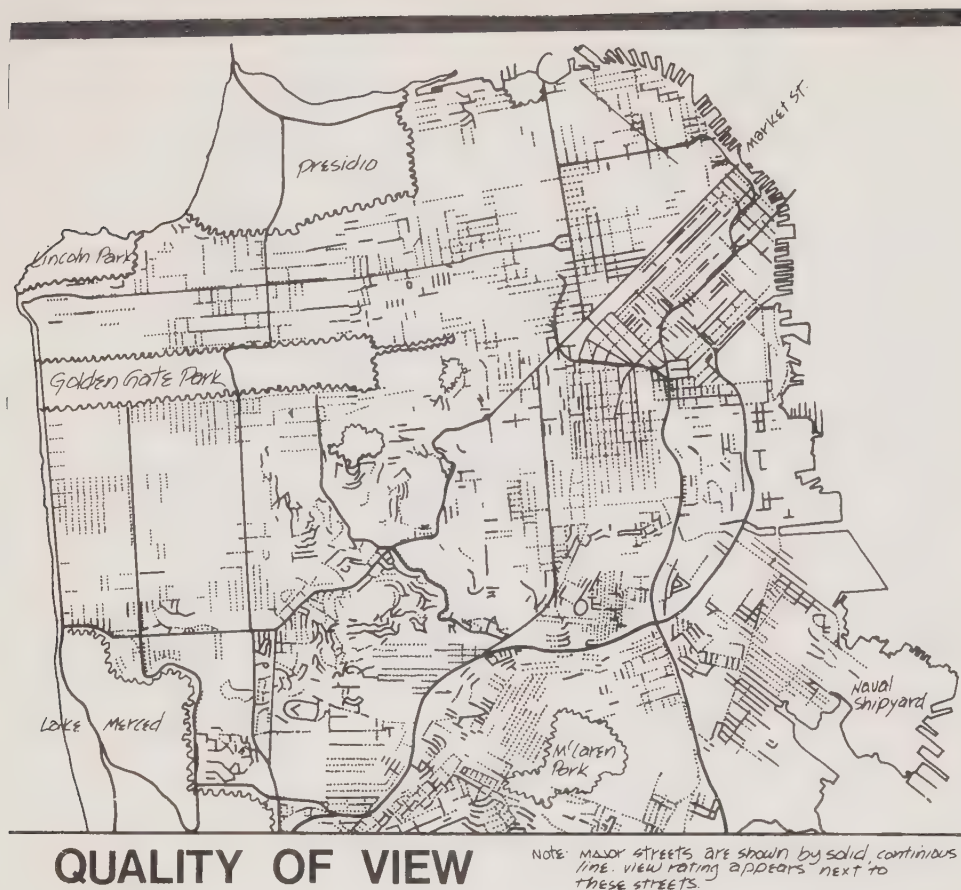


Figure II-5. QUALITY OF VIEW

Source: From Social Reconnaissance Survey, Fall, 1969, conducted by Marshall Kaplan, Gans and Kahn for the Dept. of City Planning as part of the Urban Design Study.

particularly true along winding streets. In areas with poor views, more emphasis is placed upon the quality of the immediate setting. When this occurs, visual interest of street facade and block variation become more important factors.

Variation in appearance between blocks, as shown in Fig. II-6 as an indication of the amount of variety within an area of the city. Without variety the development pattern can become repetitious and monotonous. The pattern of high and low ratings for block variation parallels the pattern for visual interest of street facade. There are differences in the patterns but not extreme ones. When these two environmental factors are combined, they become a better measure of the design richness of an area than either one alone. Where their low ratings coincide, highly visible improvements of a distinctive nature are desirable. South Central, Inner Mission, and South Bayshore have the most extensive areas marked by low ratings for both categories of block variation and visual interest of street facade.

a. Physical Community Design of the Western Addition

Western Addition is an area characterized by non-conforming uses which are to be found in over 72% of the total blocks.

The traffic circulation system consists of a uniform grid pattern of streets which have invited streams of traffic through residential neighborhoods throughout the area. Physical conditions of the streets are not good. About one-half of the street surface is deteriorating. Off-street parking is inadequate.

There is no general land use pattern. Of the total 73 blocks, 69 are residential. Out of a total 1100 residential structures, 531 are in poor condition and 326 are fair.

The population density is high. About 15,000 people live in the area.

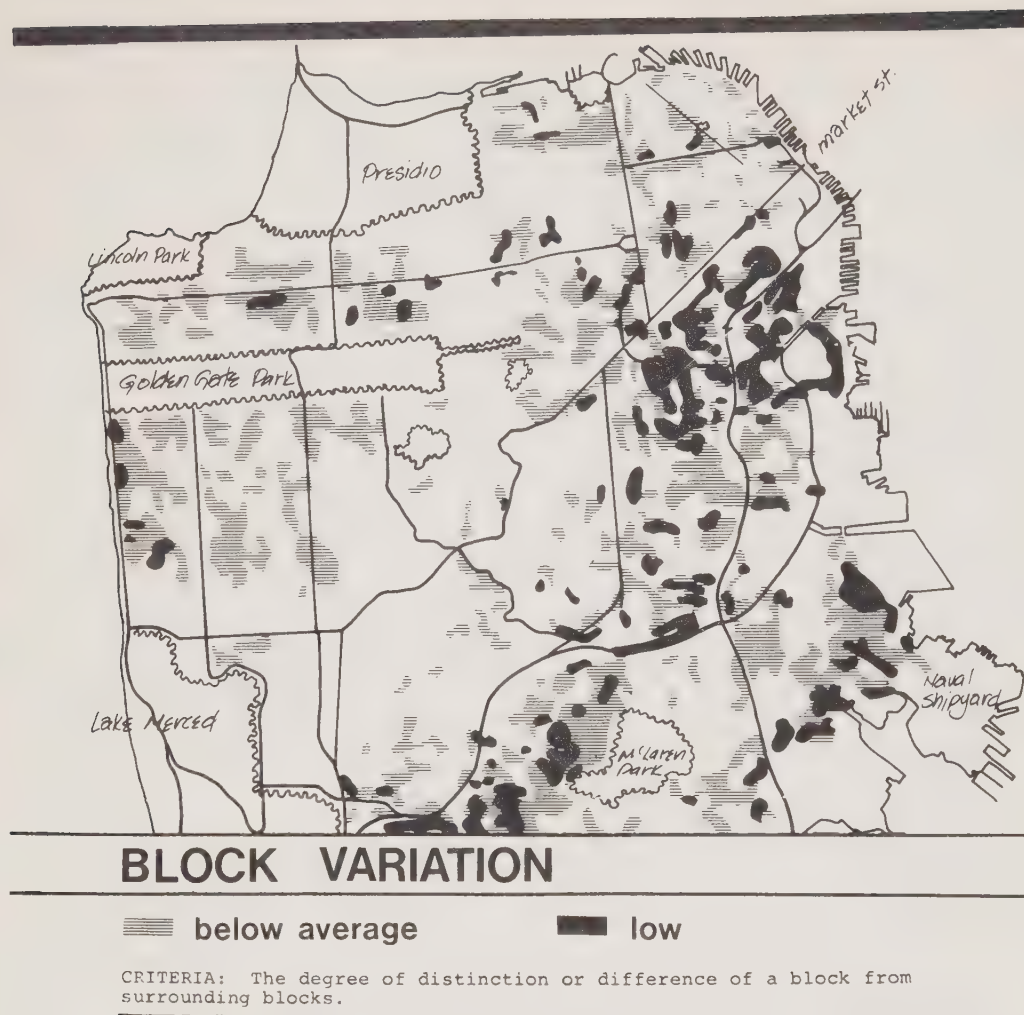


Figure II-6. VARIATION IN APPEARANCE  
BETWEEN BLOCKS

Source: From Social Reconnaissance Survey, Fall, 1969, conducted by Marshall Kaplan, Gans and Kahn for the Dept. of City Planning as part of the Urban Design Study.



Schools and public parks are well located in the area. On the outskirts of the Western Addition Hamilton playground, the neighbors are offered a swimming pool, a community center, athletic fields, and a library.

New housing has been built on the east end of Western Addition but the cost of housing is so high that residents cannot afford to move into them.

b. Physical Community Design of the Mission District

The Mission District mixes commercial use with two and three story residential buildings. There are several main traffic routes through and within the district. Dolores, Mission, Market, and Castro streets are examples. Other streets like the numbered ones perpendicular to Mission Street are feeders to the main ones, and connect the rest of the Mission area to its main arteries. Typically, those secondary streets combine residential and commercial uses, whereas streets like Mission are primarily commercial (with Dolores as an important exception). In addition, smaller streets make up the rest of the Mission. They are typically through residential areas, have little through traffic, and often small scale commercial use like grocery stores and laundromats on corners. Since these are placed that service particular neighborhoods, they are important to the local residents.

c. Physical Community Design of Sunnydale

Sunnydale is a public housing project for low-income residents. It lacks department stores, grocery stores, and other commercial businesses that might serve the community. At present, a new junior high school is being built. Wilson High School is only a short distance away and an elementary school is close by. John McLaren Park, adjacent to Sunnydale has an outside playground, an indoor swimming pool,

athletic fields, and a golf course. On the whole, Sunnydale lacks commercial businesses and new housing. Parking is good, but the streets could be improved.

d. Design of the Northern Waterfront

The Gold Rush of 1849 was the first major event which helped establish San Francisco as a major trading center and port. The arrival of the treasure seekers created great activity on the northern waterfront. The port soon was noted for its exporting of gold and importing of necessities, as well as luxuries, for the miners. The strength of the port activities and related businesses coupled with the maritime jungle atmosphere soon repelled people and other activities from the waterfront.

After the Gold Rush the miners were forced to cultivate the land; grain became the major export product. A period then elapsed where the physical development of the waterfront occurred. The state gained control of the port's activities and began the filling of tidelands, construction of the sea wall and building of piers as continuations of the East-West streets.

The Spanish-American War gave to San Francisco a new role, that of the United States, major West Coast military base. Then with the declaration of war on Japan and the creation of the Pacific Theater, San Francisco became the important shipping port it is today.

However, because of neighboring ports specializing in bulk shipments San Francisco has become a port for general cargo of high monetary value. San Francisco's port has been largely responsible for the city's image as a cosmopolitan center with significant national and international bonds.

Recently the control of the San Francisco Port Authority has been returned to the city, which is presently investigating the future of the Northern waterfront.

The northern waterfront which extends from Fort Mason to China Basin can be divided into four subregions for study. These individual areas contain certain basic characteristics which delineate themselves from each other.

1. Fisherman's Wharf - The general entertainment activities and two cable car line terminations located in close proximity to the fishing industries makes this area the major focal point on the waterfront. Aquatic and Marine parks offer the only developed open space east of the Presidio. Inland from the entertainment belt is moderate to high income residential.

The striking views from the adjacent hills extends the romanticism of this area deeper into the central city.

2. Base of Telegraph Hill - The historic brick waterfront warehouses retain much of the flavor and character of early waterfront development. Although, warehousing and industrial activities are traditional in this area, in recent years an increasing number of existing structures have been converted for professional offices and commercial uses. The immediate waterfront is dominated with piers constructed during the early part of the century. This area receives the traffic from the terminated Embarcadero Freeway.
3. Ferry Building Area - The expansion of the Central Business District (CBD) of San Francisco is having pronounced influence on the development of this area. Urban renewal projects are replacing the industrial activities with offices, commercial uses, and business services. The Golden Gateway Project is high density residential. The piers immediately south of the Ferry Building are condemned and no longer are in use.
4. South of the Bay Bridge - The existing activities include shipping, warehousing, and light industrial uses, with much of the land along the Embarcadero used for railroad storage yards. The land use pattern is static with no new development patterns established.

The general land usage of the waterfront area is not dependent on the maritime activities. New sources of economic activity can further be developed in this area. However,

the height limits for structures must be revised and controlled to protect the vistas over the Bay. The land use should blend in with the adjacent activities to establish a continuous relation with the waterfront. Table II-1 shows the percentage of land use.

e. Southeastern Waterfront Design

The growth of San Francisco veered away from the southeastern shore because of geographical boundaries which isolated it from the rest of the city. In 1849 two brothers, Robert and Philip Hunter, attempted to develop the area, but because of its isolation the project failed.

In 1868 the State Legislature passed an act which authorized the sale of lands along the southeastern shoreline to be used for general commerce and "slaughtering of cattle within the city limits of San Francisco." It was also in 1868 that the first dry dock was established. Small boat yards and fisheries occupied the waterfront with industry, mainly meat processing, settling on the hard inland.

In 1939 the U.S. Navy purchased the Hunter's Point Shipyard from Bethlehem Steel. A year later with the outbreak of World War II the shipyard began a rapid expansion with the neighboring area servicing its needs. After the war the residents that could afford it moved to other parts of the city leaving the impoverished people to the temporary war-time housing.

The shoreline below the shipyard in South Basin and at Candlestick Point remained virtually undisturbed for 90 years. The coves and beaches along the shore were used for fishing and picnicking and gave the people access to the waters edge. This was a great asset to the neighboring communities; with the construction of Candlestick Stadium and the haphazard filled activity that followed, however, the shoreline has been turned into an uninviting wasteland of junk yards and dump sites.



Table II-1

## PERCENTAGE LAND USE

	I	II	III	IV	Total
Retail and Entertainment	28.8%	--	---	--	7.8%
Office	5.7	--	22.5	--	5.6
General Commercial	---	11.3	27.3	20.4	14.1
Maritime	27.4	54.2	41.4	43.7	41.2
Light Industry	7.9	34.5	---	26.9	18.6
Residential	11.4	--	---	.3	3.2
Public Facilities	9.8	--	7.4	--	3.9
Public Open Space	9.0	--	1.4	8.7	5.6

Source: Northern Waterfront Plan, John S. Bolles Associates.

The southeastern shoreline still carries the isolation from its history. Not only is the rest of the city separated from this shoreline, but also the neighboring communities are shielded from its romanticism.

The Southern waterfront is dominated by industry beginning with the Southern Pacific Railroad yards at China Basin extending to the Naval Shipyard at Hunter's Point. The neighboring land is also industrial, it separates the residential areas in Bay View and Hunter's Point from the shoreline. Candlestick Stadium is the only focal point and there are presently no developed public access to the shoreline. The undeveloped vacant land is filled tidelands which are used as junk yards and dump areas.

A containership shipping dock is planned for India Basin which will be the hub of cargo shipping for San Francisco. Present plans also call for the Southern Bay Crossing to land adjacent to the containership with an artery extending south through Hunter's Point, around Candlestick, and meeting the Bayshore.

#### f. Pacific Waterfront Design

The growth of San Francisco originated from the northeastern corner rather than from the Pacific shore because of its strategic advantages. Since commerce was attracted away from the Pacific shore this waterfront is entirely open space. The public beach extends from Lincoln Park to the southern border of San Francisco. Most beach front property is residential; the exceptions are Golden Gate Park and Harding Park.

## 2. Land Use

This brief presentation consists simply of examining the existing land use patterns (based mainly on land use surveys conducted by the San Francisco Department of City Planning). References are given at the end of this section of the report and future projections about land use are also given for the entire Bay Area.

### Past and Current Land Use

Figure II-7 shows a map of San Francisco indicating the neighborhoods by official or popular designations. Table II-2 summarizes the land use data comparing the figures of 1961-64 to those of 1947-48 land use survey.<sup>1</sup>

40% of San Francisco's 30,095 acres are used for residential purposes. The city is divided into 17 sections, as shown in Table II-3. The following eight Figs. II-8 through II-15 show a breakdown of these 17 sections into land use for residence, commerce, industry, and vacant land.<sup>2</sup>

The dynamics of land use depends on a number of factors, for example, the demand for residential land depends not only on the size and the characteristics of the city's population, but also depends on such factors as zoning laws, the economic situation, "state" of the nation, the city and the surrounding areas, to name a few. References 3, 4, and 5, give reports showing the effects of the Bay Area Transportation Study Commission (BATSC). In their study, the interactions between factors such as population, employment, land use and housing were taken into account, producing regional trends in all these areas.

Residential, professional, commercial, and industrial land uses are described below.

### Residential Land Use

Figures II-16 through II-19 show areas of the greatest residential construction in San Francisco. The Richmond districts, the Inner Sunset, and one tract in each of four



--- RECOMMENDED  
BOUNDARIES

### MODEL NEIGHBORHOOD AREAS BAYVIEW-HUNTERS POINT AND MISSION NEIGHBORHOODS

#### COMMUNITIES

1. OUTER RICHMOND
2. RICHMOND
3. MARINA
4. RUSSIAN HILL-NORTH BEACH
5. WESTERN ADDITION
6. BUENA VISTA
7. MISSION
8. POTRERO-BERNAL
9. BAYSHORE
10. OUTER MISSION
11. WEST OF TWIN PEAKS
12. SUNSET

--- COMMUNITY BOUNDARY

THE DISTRICT NAMES SHOWN ON THIS MAP, OTHER THAN THOSE REFERRING TO THE OFFICIALLY ADOPTED RESIDENTIAL COMMUNITY AREAS SHOWN IN THE COLUMN TO THE LEFT, ARE INFORMAL AND POPULAR AREA DESIGNATIONS, HAVING NO PRECISE BOUNDARIES.

## SAN FRANCISCO DEPARTMENT OF CITY PLANNING

Figure II-7. NEIGHBORHOODS BY OFFICIAL OR POPULAR DESIGNATIONS



Table II-2. COMPARISON OF LAND USE DATA 1961-64 - 1947-48

## LAND USE DATA - CITY-WIDE

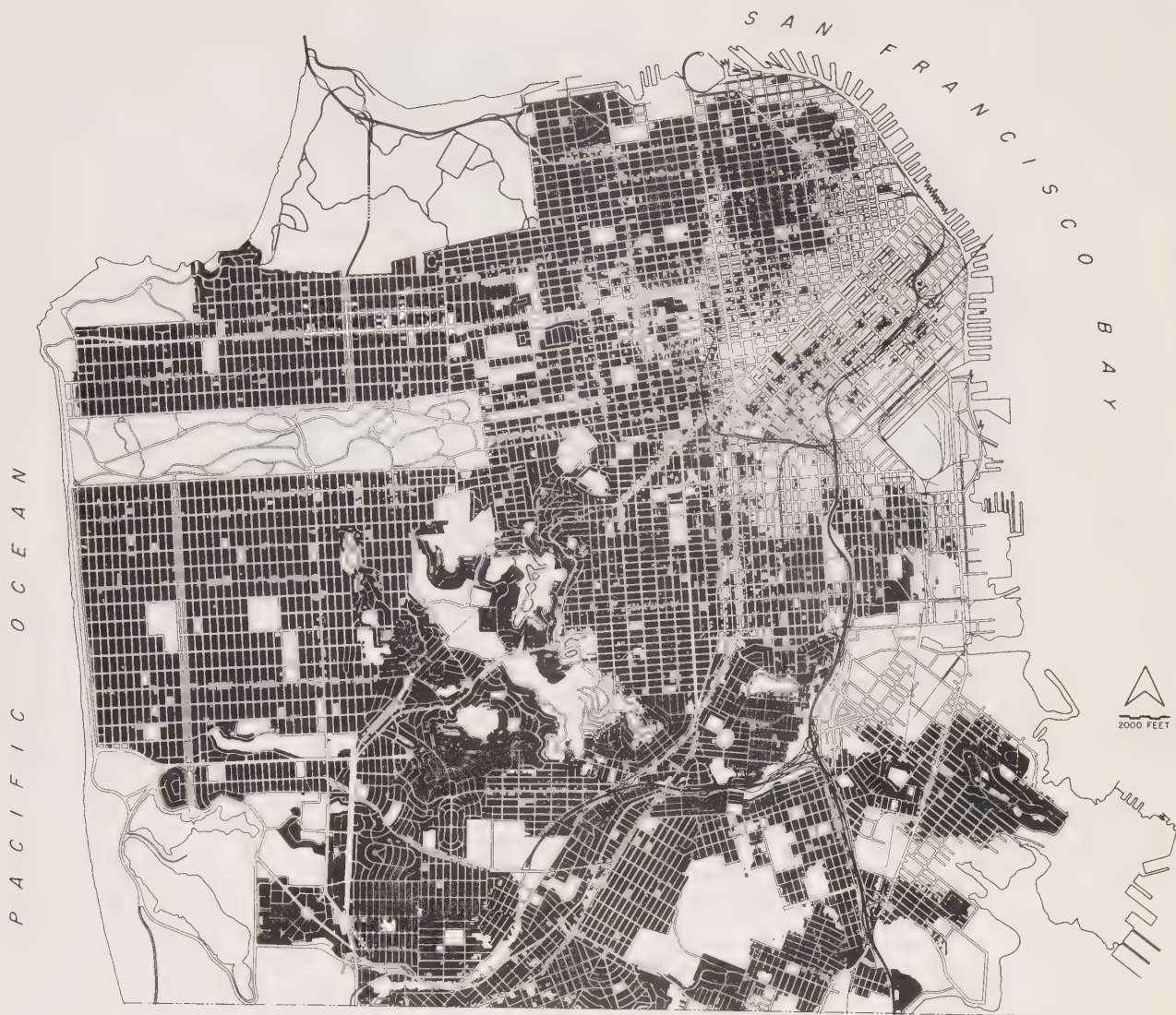
Compiled from the 1947-48 and 1961-64 land use surveys. Areas in acres.

Land Use Category	1961-64 Land Use	1947-48 Land Use	Percentages of 1961-64 Land Use by	
			City-Wide Net Acreage	Category Heading
Gross Area of City	30095.00			
Net Area of City	<u>22601.49</u>	<u>22284.99</u>	<u>100.0%</u>	
RESIDENCE TOTAL	<u>9037.11</u>	<u>8239.65</u>	<u>40.0</u>	<u>100.0%</u>
Single Family Detached	1810.07	2089.17	8.0	20.0
Single Family Row	4406.41	3586.52	19.5	48.7
Two Family	1114.50	1020.49	4.9	12.3
Three to Four Family	475.16	442.68	2.1	5.3
Five to Nine Family	312.95	235.90	1.4	3.5
Ten Family & over	512.78	370.56	2.3	5.7
Rooming & Boarding Houses	33.46	44.64	.1	.4
Hotel & Motel	42.61	22.66	.2	.5
Public Housing	329.17	427.03	1.5	3.6
COMMERCE TOTAL	<u>1478.00</u>	<u>1232.57</u>	<u>6.5</u>	<u>100.0%</u>
Retail & Offices	931.82	819.52	4.1	63.0
Gas Station	108.48	91.41	.5	7.3
Commercial Garage	64.17	80.89	.3	4.3
Wholesale	20.98	54.74	.1	1.4
Parking, Used Car Lot	303.57	92.08	1.3	20.5
Other Open Air Commerce	48.98	93.93	.2	3.3
INDUSTRY TOTAL	<u>1463.89</u>	<u>1253.96</u>	<u>6.5</u>	<u>100.0%</u>
Structural Light	551.87	443.73	2.4	37.7
" Intermediate	315.21	254.99	1.4	21.5
" Heavy	162.08	261.53	.7	11.1
Open Air Light	83.65	35.47	.4	5.7
" Intermediate	218.59	159.19	1.0	14.9
" Heavy	132.49	99.05	.6	9.1
UTILITY TOTAL	<u>954.19</u>	<u>1071.57</u>	<u>4.2</u>	<u>100.0%</u>
Trucks & Bus Terminals	3.98	26.81	-	.4
Railroad Tracks & Terminals	280.45	300.39	1.2	29.4
Lakes & Reservoirs	585.28	674.84	2.6	61.3
Other Utilities	84.48	69.53	.4	8.9
INSTITUTION TOTAL	<u>439.65</u>	<u>352.32</u>	<u>1.9</u>	<u>100.0%</u>
Private & Parochial Schools	143.26	91.40	.6	32.6
Homes	76.51	102.19	.3	17.4
Hospitals	46.67	53.98	.2	10.6
Churches	118.30	75.79	.5	26.9
Convents, etc.	11.19	10.27	-	2.5
Other Institutional Uses	43.72	18.69	.2	9.9
PUBLIC TOTAL	<u>6593.94</u>	<u>5397.51</u>	<u>29.2</u>	<u>100.0%</u>
Public Recreation	2946.83	2370.83	13.0	44.7
Public Schools	544.66	300.77	2.4	8.3
Libraries	6.92	6.51	-	.1
Hospitals	137.47	106.62	.6	2.1
Administrative	43.23	15.81	.2	.7
Fire and Police	16.83	13.29	.1	.3
Other Public Uses	2898.00	2583.68	12.8	43.9
PRIVATE RECREATION	<u>363.57</u>	<u>298.26</u>	<u>1.6</u>	<u>100.0%</u>
VACANT TOTAL	<u>2271.14</u>	<u>4439.15</u>	<u>10.0</u>	<u>100.0%</u>
Open Vacant	1370.71	3593.41	6.1	60.4
Tidelands	775.69	710.68	3.4	34.2
Beach	124.74	124.06	.6	5.5

Table II-3. 17 COMMUNITY &amp; WORKING AREAS

San Francisco  
Summary Land Use Table -- 1961-64 Land Use Survey

Community & Working Area												
	Total Gross Acreage	Total Net Acreage	Residence	Commerce	Industry	Utility	Institution	Recreation		Other Public	Vacant	
								Private	Public			
1	1205.52	791.58	670.81	39.67	1.98	.28	11.51	7.46	20.11	27.92	11.84	
2	823.35	560.05	417.06	65.16	7.06	.66	24.29	-	30.74	9.29	5.79	
3	858.06	652.54	317.82	39.77	3.75	2.14	7.30	.26	83.45	79.24	118.81	
4	773.17	507.84	299.53	84.67	22.97	5.55	18.70	1.84	43.01	16.02	15.55	
5	1395.15	920.70	497.64	139.16	31.35	.93	115.32	1.78	51.93	34.38	48.21	
6	1497.55	1119.36	563.40	44.29	5.08	24.40	20.36	6.24	105.74	265.43	84.42	
7	1811.50	1263.15	755.57	108.65	26.24	.41	27.33	9.93	110.53	40.58	183.91	
8	1288.08	876.15	567.05	46.79	22.25	13.53	13.95	-	42.76	99.26	70.56	
9	2218.14	1604.22	925.80	58.65	14.61	43.34	45.41	-	115.44	169.61	231.36	
10	1458.80	1009.96	681.69	66.41	7.94	.41	15.86	-	87.42	107.51	42.72	
11	3432.62	2533.96	1573.26	102.22	2.19	33.02	83.70	173.60	130.47	311.54	123.96	
12	2861.17	1949.25	1590.96	77.56	5.12	35.83	28.52	-	89.46	79.73	42.07	
W	1036.52	625.80	54.64	345.41	83.91	28.62	13.81	-	9.13	64.88	25.40	
X	1286.56	855.49	71.43	211.59	415.29	39.32	12.88	-	5.28	81.91	17.79	
Y	1058.81	769.23	6.89	12.32	388.23	204.29	.38	-	4.41	4.38	148.33	
Z	2652.00	2171.24	43.56	31.92	425.92	77.62	.33	-	3.40	643.58	944.91	
00	4438.00	4390.97	-	3.76	-	443.84	-	162.46	2013.55	1611.85	155.51	
30095.00			22,601.49	9037.11	1478.00	1463.89	954.19	439.65	363.57	2946.83	3647.11	2271.14
City-Wide Totals												



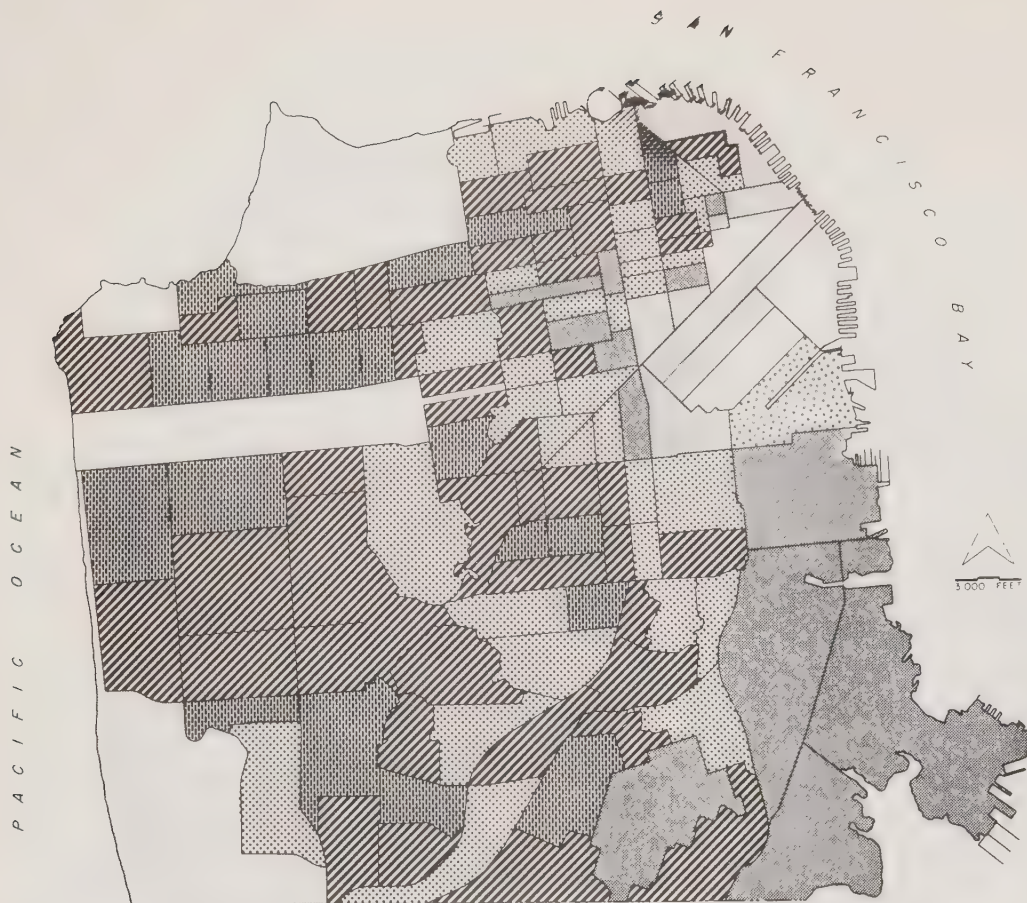
## LAND USED FOR RESIDENCE

SOURCE: 1961 - 64 LAND USE SURVEY

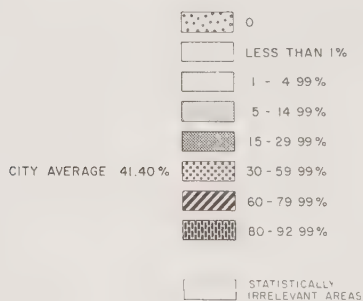
PREPARED BY THE SAN FRANCISCO DEPARTMENT OF CITY PLANNING 1964

Figure II-8.





LAND USED FOR RESIDENCE AS A PERCENT OF CENSUS TRACT NET AREA \*



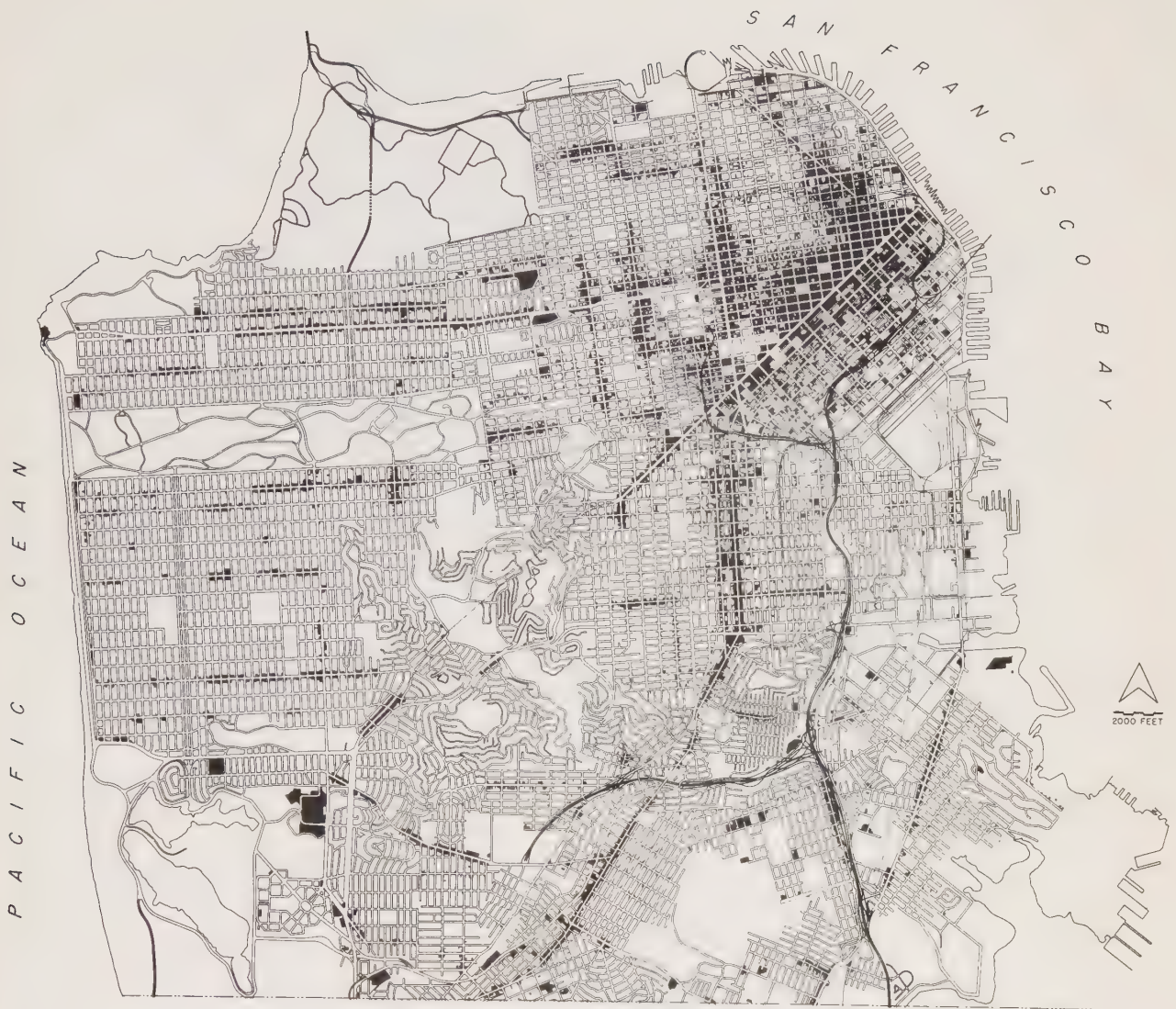
\* Delands Excluded from Census Tract Net Area  
 Source: San Francisco Department of City Planning, 1964 Land Use Survey

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 COMMUNITY RENEWAL PROGRAM

CRP

Figure II-9.



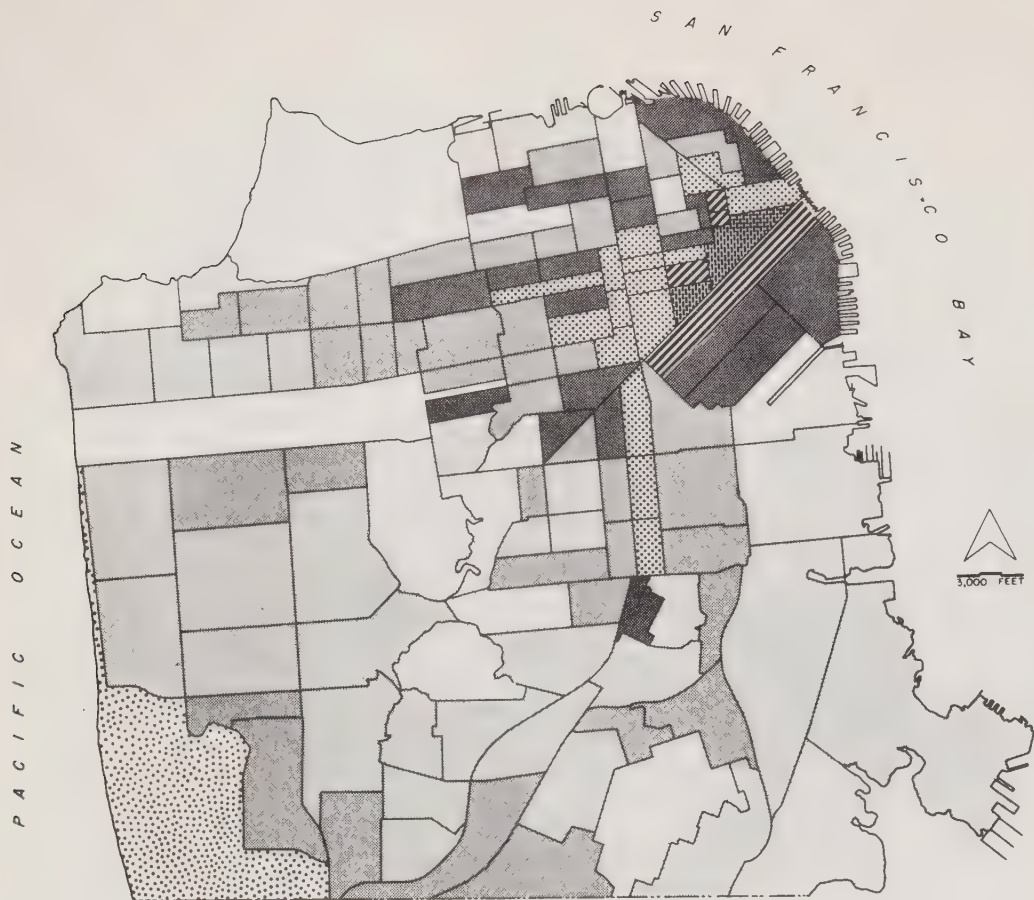


## LAND USED FOR COMMERCE

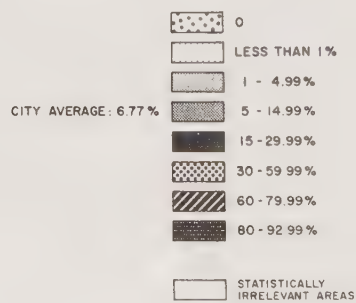
SOURCE: 1961 - 64 LAND USE SURVEY

PREPARED BY THE SAN FRANCISCO DEPARTMENT OF CITY PLANNING . 1964

Figure II-10.



LAND USED FOR COMMERCE AS A PERCENT OF CENSUS TRACT NET AREA\*

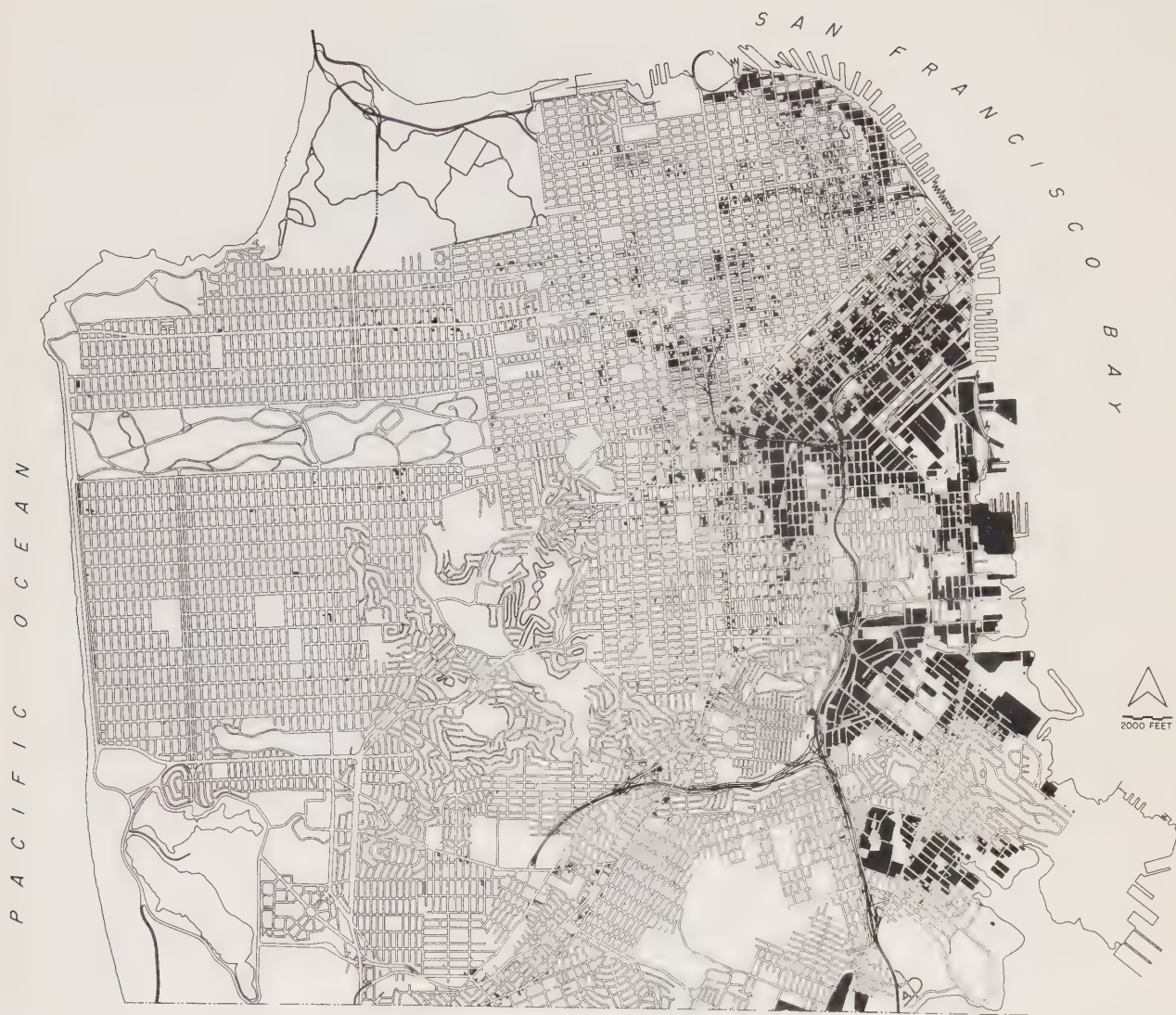


\* Tidelands Excluded from Census Tract Net Area  
Source: San Francisco Department of City Planning, 1961 - 1964 Land Use Survey

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COMMUNITY RENEWAL PROGRAM **CRP**

Figure II-11.



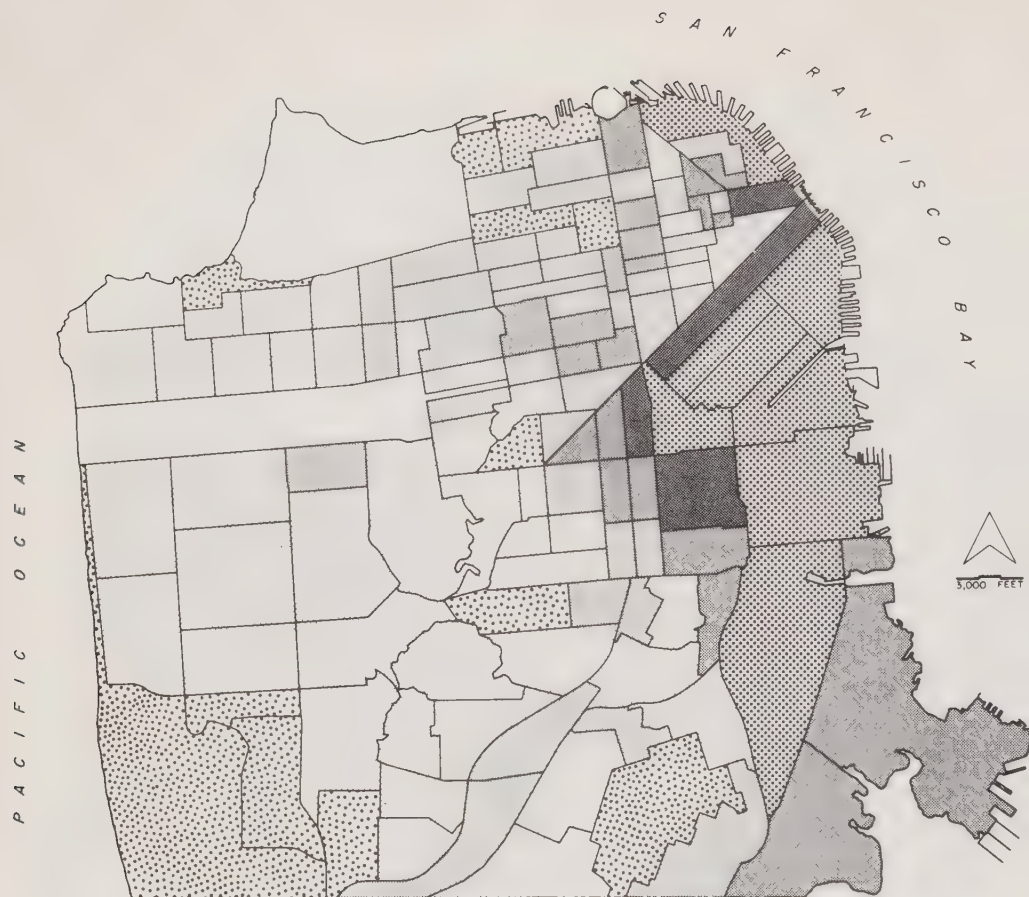


## LAND USED FOR INDUSTRY

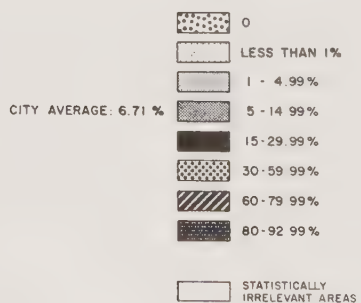
SOURCE: 1961 - 64 LAND USE SURVEY

PREPARED BY THE SAN FRANCISCO DEPARTMENT OF CITY PLANNING · 1964

Figure II-12.



LAND USED FOR INDUSTRY AS A PERCENT OF CENSUS TRACT NET AREA\*



\*Tidelands Excluded from Census Tract Net Area  
Source: San Francisco Department of City Planning, 1961-1964 Land Use Survey

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COMMUNITY RENEWAL PROGRAM **CRP**

Figure II-13.





## VACANT LAND

(EXCLUDING REDEVELOPMENT AREAS, TIDELANDS AND BEACHES)

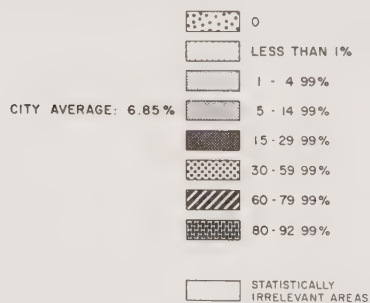
SOURCE: 1961 - 64 LAND USE SURVEY

PREPARED BY THE SAN FRANCISCO DEPARTMENT OF CITY PLANNING • 1964

Figure II-14.



**VACANT LAND AS A PERCENT OF CENSUS TRACT NET AREA\***  
(INCLUDING VACANT REDEVELOPMENT AREAS AND BEACHES)



\*Tidelands Excluded from Census Tract Net Area  
Source: San Francisco Department of City Planning, 1961 - 1964 Land Use Survey

SAN FRANCISCO  
COMMUNITY RENEWAL PROGRAM **CRP**

Figure II-15.

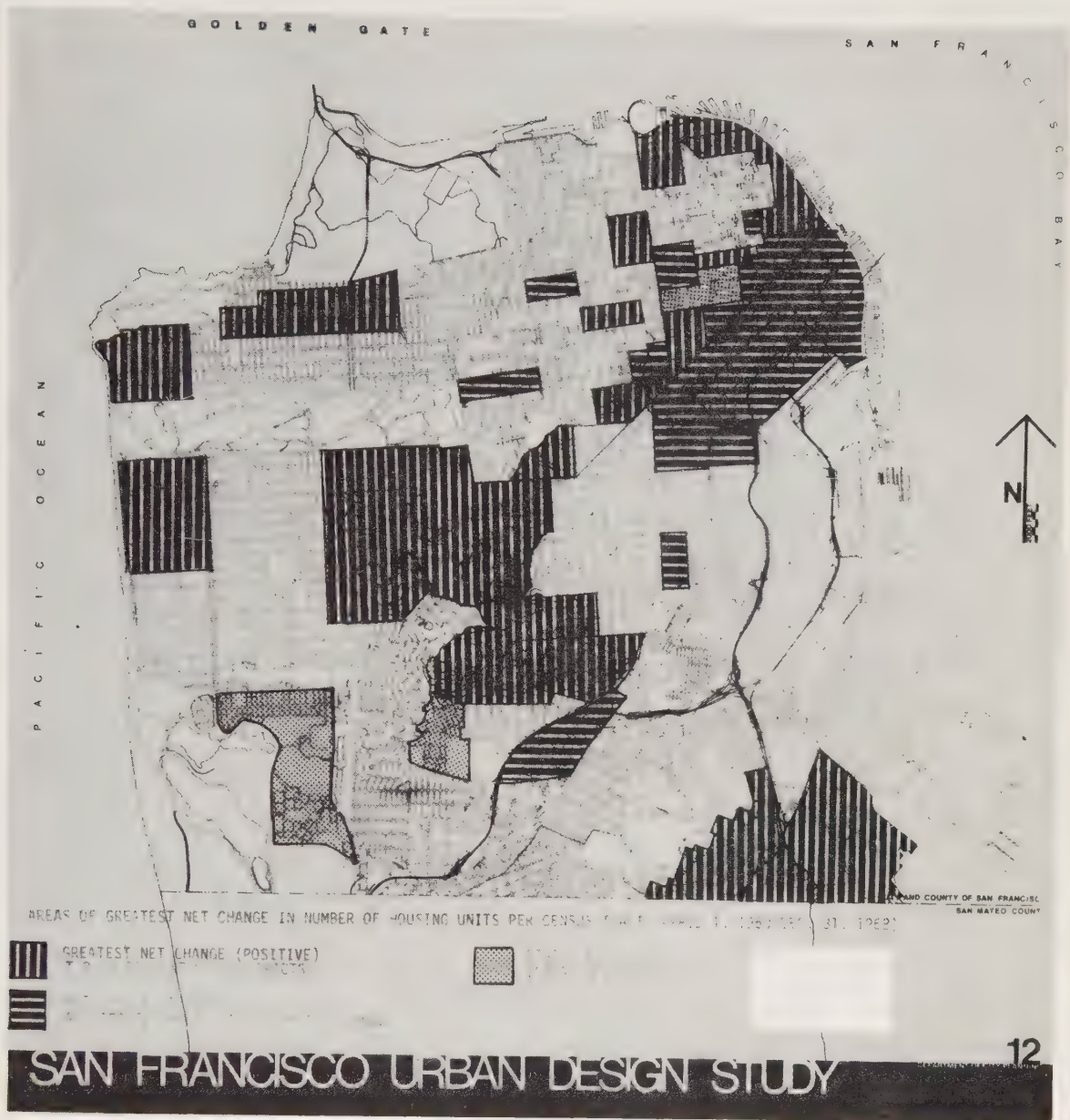


Figure II-16.





Figure II-17.



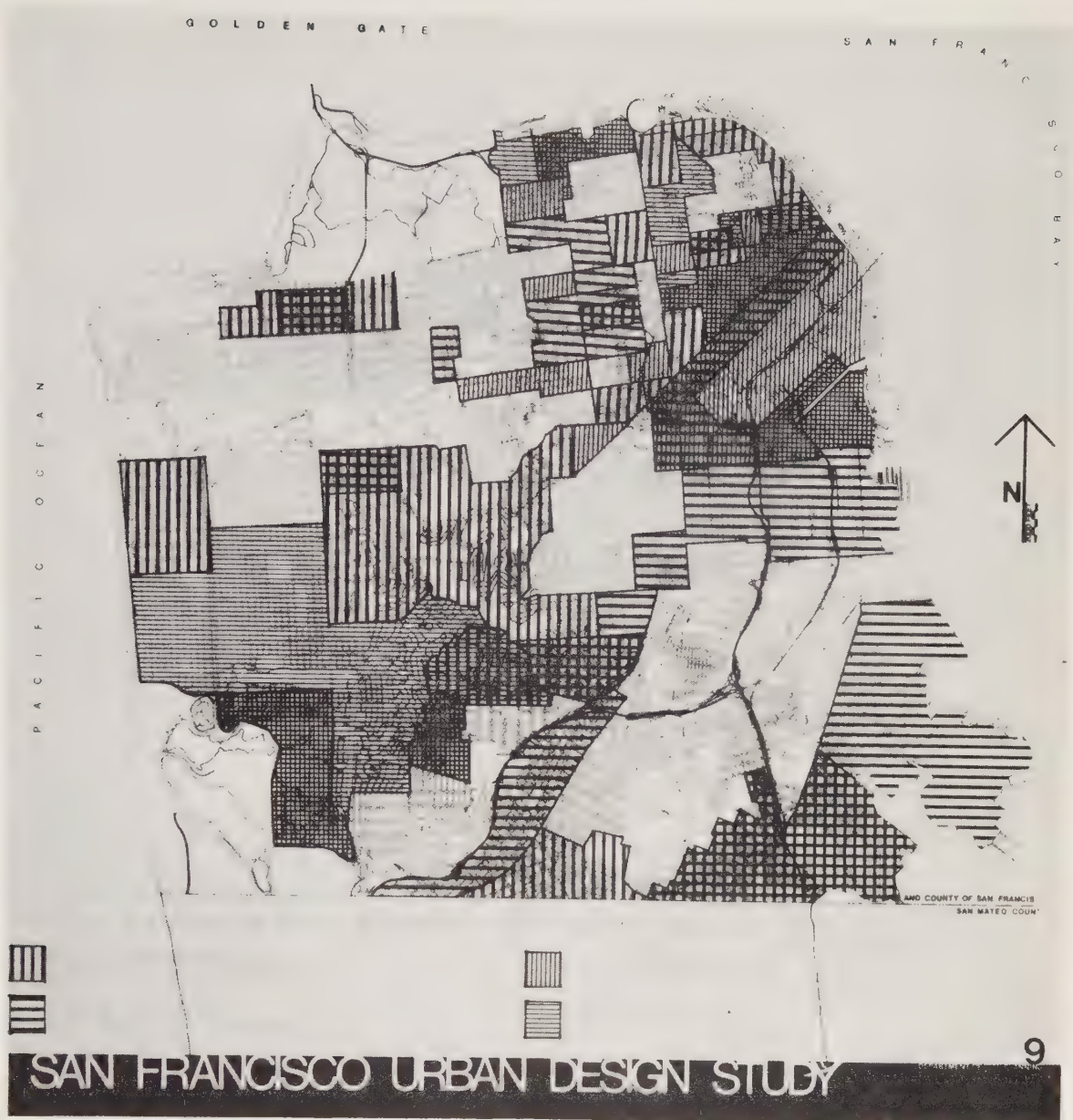
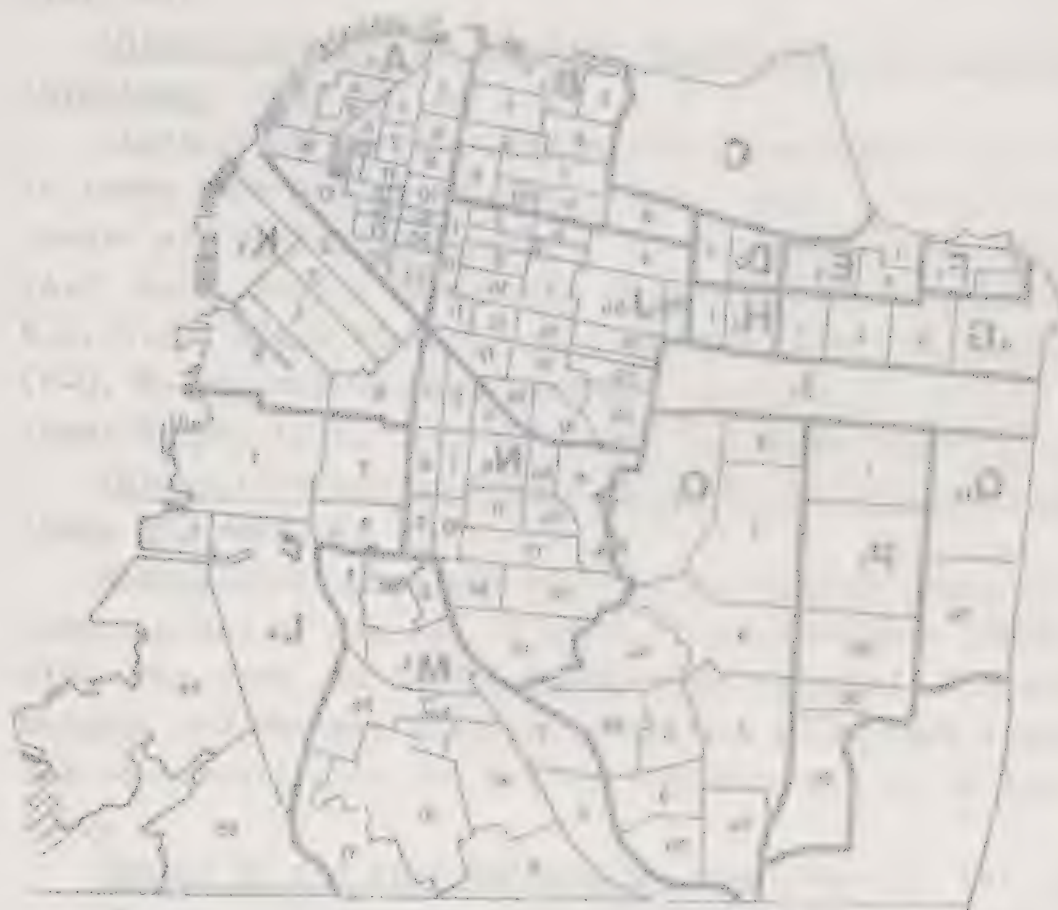


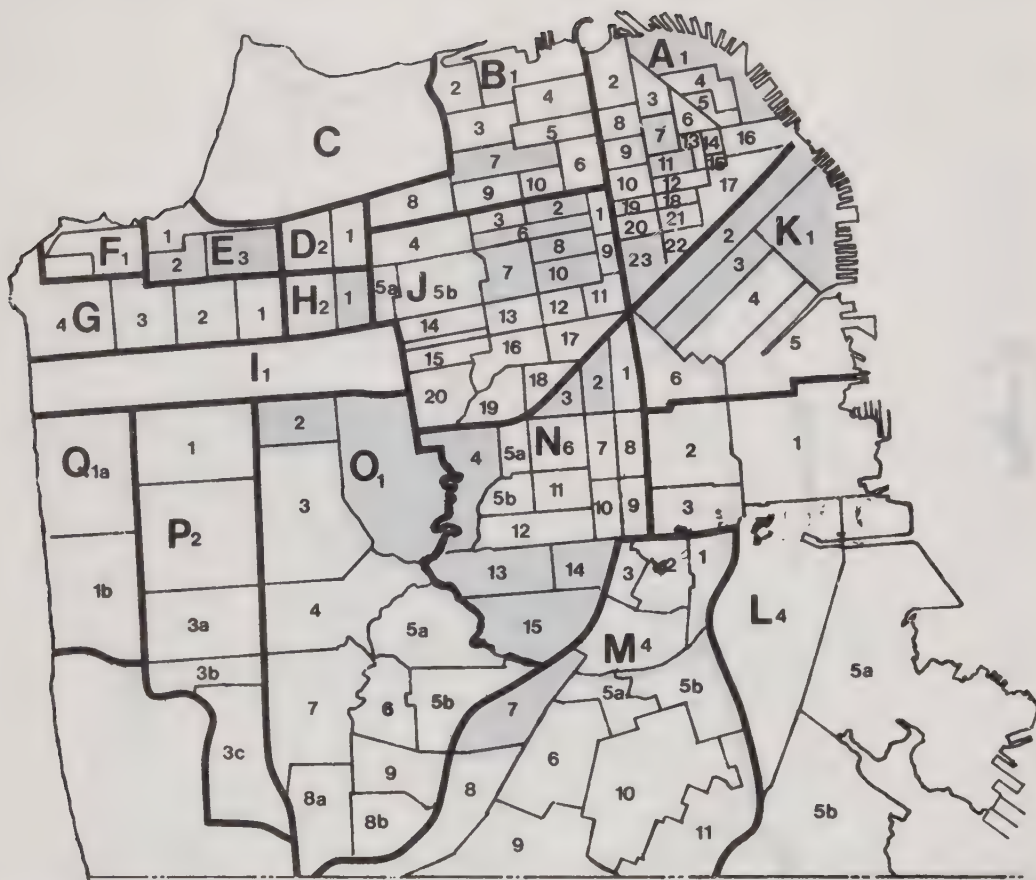
Figure II-18.



Figure II-19.



Census Tracts Overlay



Census Tracts Overlay



other districts. The Northeast, the Marina, Buena Vista, and the South Central districts underwent intensive residential use.

Intensification of Existing Residential Use by Private Investment (Page 33, ref. 6).

Significant private residential investment took place in these existing residential areas, shown in fig. 19. The tracts are as follows: tracts in the Northern District (A-2, A-11, A-12); the Marina (B-4, B-6); Richmond (D-2, E-2, E-3); Buena Vista (J-19); the South Central District (M-9, M-11); the Central District (N-14, N-13, N-15); the Inner Sunset (O-1, O-2, O-3); and the Outer Sunset (Q-1a).

Intensification of Residential Use by Public Investment (Page 35, ref. 6).

Residential units had been constructed in three redevelopment areas by the end of 1968: Golden Gateway (residential uses were new in the Northern Waterfront); Diamond Heights and Western Addition A-1. 218 units were scheduled for construction in the Western Addition A-2 as of April 1969.

Change to and from Residential Use (Page 30, ref. 6).

Figure 19 indicates that significant residential investment is taking place in three formerly mainly non-residential tracts in the Northeast and Downtown districts: A-1, A-16, and A-23. The 1961-1964 Land Use Survey<sup>1</sup> conducted by the Department of City Planning gave the percentage of residential use for these tracts as from 5 to 15 percent. These tracts now exemplify reclamation of the declining warehouse and small industry area to accommodate increasing demand for central-city housing on the part of above-average-income residents.

The most probable path of private investment, should it continue to follow the publicly-instituted Golden Gateway redevelopment now existing in tract A-16, would be continued movement along the waterfront towards Fisherman's Wharf and

Aquatic Park. These areas offer amenities and recreational uses, as well as easy access to both bridges leading to recreation areas outside the City. Census tract A-23 enjoys the advantage of proximity to the Civic Center, the nucleus of the City's cultural activities. Continued intensification of residential uses here would necessarily call forth high-rise designs, since much of the tract is already in commercial or public use.

Expansion and Contraction of Existing Residential Use  
(Page 55, ref. 6).

Other Northeast tracts (A-2, A-6), parts of the Western Addition and Buena Vista (J-8, J-17), the southern portion of the Central district (N-13, N-15) and a tract in the Inner Sunset (O-1) display intensification of residential uses in areas formerly rated as between 30 to 60 percent residential. All these tracts adjoin tracts intensively used for residential purposes; that is, already 60 to 80 percent residential.

A significant exception occurred in the South Bayshore district (tract L-5b). Residential use increased here, though this tract was formerly among the lowest in such use, at only 15 to 30 percent residential. Continued change in the direction of residential use could tip the balance, since this tract was also over 30 percent vacant and less than 15 percent in industrial use, according to the land use survey.

Contraction of residential use in existing residential tracts occurred in the Northeast (A-4, A-10), the Western Addition (J-3, J-11, J-14), Buena Vista (J-18), the Mission district (N-9) and the South Central district (M-7), as shown in Fig. 19. All these tracts have experienced a net decrease of housing units. Three were primarily residential, that is, from 60 to 80 percent. The remainder were in the 15 to 60 percent range in residential use.

### Professional, Commercial, and Industrial Land Use

It can be predicted that the major transportation routes traversing the downtown area, particularly along BART now under construction will attract new construction of office buildings and expansion of existing structures. New commercial uses are also developing along with professional buildings in most downtown tracts, especially along Market Street. New industrial use should expand south of Market as well as in the South Bayshore tracts (L-4 and L-5a).

## Land Use

### References

1. San Francisco Department of City Planning, "The Land Use in San Francisco," October 1964.
2. San Francisco Department of City Planning, "San Francisco Handbook," Community Renewal Program.
3. Bay Area Transportation Study Commission, "Controlled Trends," Zonal Forecasts 1965-1980-1990.
4. Bay Area Transportation Study Commission, "Bay Area Transportation Report."
5. Bay Area Transportation Study Commission, "Projective Land Use Model."
6. Kaplan, Marshall, Gans and Kahn, "Economic Trends," Final Report, Report prepared for the San Francisco Department of City Planning.

### Some additional references

1. "Model Cities Application," San Francisco, Calif., April 1968.
2. Department of City Planning, "San Francisco Downtown Zoning Study," Final Report.
3. Bay Area Simulation Study (BASS), "Jobs, People, and Land," U.C. Berkeley Library, He, 108, 37C27.



## B. INSTITUTIONAL SETTING

### 1. Public Sector

#### San Francisco City -- County Government

The city of San Francisco is governed through a consolidated city-county government, under whose jurisdiction is included approximately 700,000 people living in an area of 46.5 square miles. Legally a municipal corporation, San Francisco operates under a city charter adopted in 1932. Under this charter, three major offices of government are the Mayor, the Board of Supervisors and the Chief Administrative Officer; other powers are dispersed through the system in separate city departments.

#### The Mayor's Office

The mayor of San Francisco is elected by plurality to a four-year term. The mayoral position under the charter has formal aspects of both a strong and a weak position, but is in fact weak; limited to appointive and budget process powers. It must, however, be emphasized that the personality and ambition of the incumbent determine the authority of the office and the power relative to other parts of the system. The mayor can, if he will, operate around the charter rather than through it and thus bring great power to the office; the present mayor is trying to develop such control over the city departments and thus bring decision-making closer to the administrative head of government. The greatest limitation of the mayoral power is the autonomy of some city departments responsible not to the mayor but to the Chief Administrative Officer (CAO). The mayor is also limited by not having his personal staff although he does choose several key appointees. Present mayoral goals for government administration include bringing the CAO (and thus many city departments under mayoral powers.

Beyond its governmental role, the present administration places at the top of its priorities stemming the outflow of the middle class from San Francisco and raising the living

and working standards of the poor and minority groups.

### The Board of Supervisors

The Board of Supervisors is the chief legislative body in San Francisco. It is comprised of eleven<sup>1</sup> members elected at large from the city, and the term, like that of mayor, is a four-year term. Half the membership of the board is elected every two years; traditionally the incoming member with the largest number of votes serves as the chairman (now Mrs. Dianne Feinstein). The Board of Supervisors does not operate along political lines, even though the current composition is nine Democrats and two Republicans. Alignments shift according to issues and fall more along economic lines than political interests. The majority of the supervisors represent middle class interests, with one or two members primarily concerned with large business (Mrs. von Beroldingen), or poverty-minority interests (Mr. Terry Francois). The Board of Supervisors is potentially the most powerful part of the government structure, having the power of legislation. Most of the legislation coming before the Board is passed to one of several committees (Table II-4), either standing or ad hoc. Following public hearings and private consultation, the recommendations are sent back to the Board, which generally accepts them. Once final approval is pronounced, only the courts can repeal the decision. The power of the Board is dependent on the strength of the mayor in office. For most key issues, the current mayor can regularly muster at least six votes from members of the Board of Supervisors, a percentage greater than half of the eleven members. The Board has the right of putting articles on the ballot, by securing the signatures

---

<sup>1</sup>Eleven Board of Supervisors members are Roger Boas, John A. Ertola, Terry A. Francois, Peter Tamaras, Mrs. Dorothy von Beroldingen, Mrs. Dianne Feinstein (President), Ronald Pelosi, Robert E. Gonzales, Robert H. Mendelsohn, James Mailliard, and John Barbagellata.

Table II-4

BOARD OF SUPERVISORS  
Room 235, City Hall  
San Francisco, California 94102

Standing Committees - 1970-71

	Monthly Meeting Days
1. Cultural Activities Supervisors Barbagelata, Boas, von Beroldingen	1st Tuesday
2. Finance Supervisors von Beroldingen, Francois Mendelsohn	Each Wednesday
3. Fire, Safety and Police Supervisors Francois, Mendelsohn, Tamaras	2nd Thursday
4. Governmental Services Supervisors Boas, Barbagelata, Ertola	2nd Tuesday
5. Health and Environment Supervisors Mendelsohn, Ertola, Gonzales	4th Tuesday
6. Legislative and Personnel Supervisors Tamaras, Mailliard, Pelosi	1st Thursday
7. Planning and Development Supervisors Pelosi, Boas, Mailliard	3rd Tuesday
8. Rules Supervisors Feinstein, Ertola, Tamaras	Call of the Chair
9. Social Services Supervisors Gonzales, Barbagelata, Pelosi	3rd Thursday
10. State and National Affairs Supervisors Mailliard, Francois, Tamaras	1st Friday
11. Streets and Transportation Supervisors Ertola, Francois, Gonzales	4th Thursday

First-named Supervisor is Chairman of the Committee

Each committee meeting to commence at 2:00 P.M., unless otherwise directed (with adequate notice) by the Board, the Chairman or a majority of the committee.

The meeting days and hours shown are subject to change, and the committee may meet more frequently, as directed by the Board, the Chairman or a majority of the committee from time to time. Adequate notice of meetings, as listed herein or otherwise scheduled, will be given.

Revised 2-13-70

of five of its members. It also has the power of removal of various city officials, among them the Chief Administrative Officer, for cause.

The Board of Supervisors is limited by the charter in its relations with other areas of government. It can request cooperation of the various departments in securing information for its use, but has no recourse if the department declines to give information. The Board is limited in fiscal matters to approval of or cutbacks in the proposed budget. Occasionally a budget is cut without the Supervisors knowledge of the consequences. To remedy this, they would like to repeal Section 22 of the charter, which would insure access to departmental information. Several members also favor the establishment of a city program analysis group to help evaluate needs and achievements of the departments.

#### The Chief Administrative Officer

San Francisco's charter provides for a Chief Administrative Officer (CAO), whose duty is to add technical expertise and continuity to the elected and appointed officials. The term is a lifetime appointment by the mayor in office at the time of a vacancy, and the CAO can be removed only for just cause by the Board of Supervisors. To date there have been only five Chief Administrative Officers in San Francisco; Thomas Mellon currently holds the post.

The CAO himself is an autonomous officer, but he usually cooperates closely with the mayor and the Board of Supervisors. One of the duties of the CAO is fiscal; he sets budget guidelines for the departments under his control (public health, public works, and purchasing). The final budget must be approved by the mayor and this provides the mayor with his only formal control over planning in these departments. Once the budget has been set, neither the mayor nor CAO can rechannel funds.

The office of the Chief Administrative Officer is one of



considerable prestige and nearly universal respect because of the acclaimed high caliber of the men who have held that position.

### Departments

Most of the departments in San Francisco are autonomous powers with their own spheres of influence. Many departments are run by commissions whose members are appointed by the mayor but who otherwise are responsible to no one in the governmental hierarchy. The strength of the various departments depends on the personalities and strengths of the department heads as well as those characteristics of the incumbent mayor; there is no clear power, authority, or constraint structure with reference to the internal mechanisms of the city departments. There is little communication between departments except on specific issues. There is no program evaluation of the departments provided for within the government framework. Most departments use public hearings extensively to determine public opinion regarding their program. There seems to be general agreement that public hearings should be required for many decisions now made by executive agreement. The city departments' functions are mainly advisory: they can make recommendations within their own jurisdiction to the Board of Supervisors for its approval and implementation.

Power in San Francisco is so diffused by charter provisions that the legislative body, the Board of Supervisors, cannot even secure information from the various city departments unless it is with the voluntary cooperation of that department. Under such a system, it is easy to understand the lack of single, cohesive, all-encompassing body dedicated to the enumeration and solution of metropolitan problems.

The departments are isolated from the actual decision making process, and they are relatively uninformed about the activities of other groups and agencies in the city. There

are few formal mechanisms for bringing the various agencies together in search of solutions to city problems. The most notable exception is the Capital Improvements Advisory Committee (CIAC). The CIAC is composed of the heads of the following departments: Chief Administrative Officer (chairman), Public Works, Public Utilities, Controller, Recreation and Parks, Administrative Director of Planning and Development (the Mayor's office), and City Planning. It meets annually to assign priorities to the various departmental proposals for city expenditures. As a sign of its effectiveness, the mayor has accepted its recommendations before sending the final budget proposal to the Board of Supervisors for consideration.

All of the agencies of city government are to some degree influenced by pressure groups. In San Francisco these groups exist on an issue-by-issue basis, and for the most part are organized along ethnic and neighborhood lines. Different issues may find the same people alternately opposing and supporting one another. Among most influential of the pressure groups are SPUR, the Chamber of Commerce, the Downtown Association and the Mission Coalition. They are formally organized and have long-term goals and sufficient time and money for research and planning of strategies. Other organizations are influential as well, but their narrower scope and shorter-range goals limit their effectiveness. All city pressure groups use public hearings to present their views, but their recommendations carry no absolute authority.

The real problems of San Francisco's government lie in the lack of communication and integration of the city departments. The charter of 1932 is outdated, and in any case the operation of the city is not carried out according to its provisions. Instead, the government of San Francisco has become highly personalized. The men have superceded the offices and informality has pre-empted the formality of city government. An article written by Frederick M. Wirt of

U.C. Berkeley, entitled, "San Francisco: The Politics of Pluralism with a Vengeance," neatly sums up the political situation in San Francisco. "Here (in San Francisco) the politics of public decision-making proceeds in a context of fragmentation of power which carries that traditional principle to its logical end - powerlessness."

Figure II-20 is a complete city and county government chart.

### Regional Government

Regional government is an extremely controversial issue in California. We will not attempt here to examine the pros and cons of regional government. Our purpose is to review the three major proposals made during the past two sessions of the State Legislature.

#### 1969 Proposals (neither was adopted by the legislature).

AB 711 (Knox) - proposed a legislative body composed of elected officials from districts roughly corresponding to present Assembly districts.

AB 1846 (Bagley) - proposed a legislative body composed of city and county elective officials on the model of ABAG.

Duties - both governments would have been responsible for designing master plans in areas of regional concern such as transportation, rapid transit, airport transportation, waste disposal and other environmental matters. The Bagley bill also included housing and law enforcement as matters of regional concern.

Financing - the financial provisions in both bills were essentially the same-income and business privilege taxation and bonding powers.

Differences - both regional governments would have had review and recommendation powers with regard to applications for financial aid made by local jurisdictions if they bore any relationship to the regional master plan. The major difference was on the question of planning supremacy. If local

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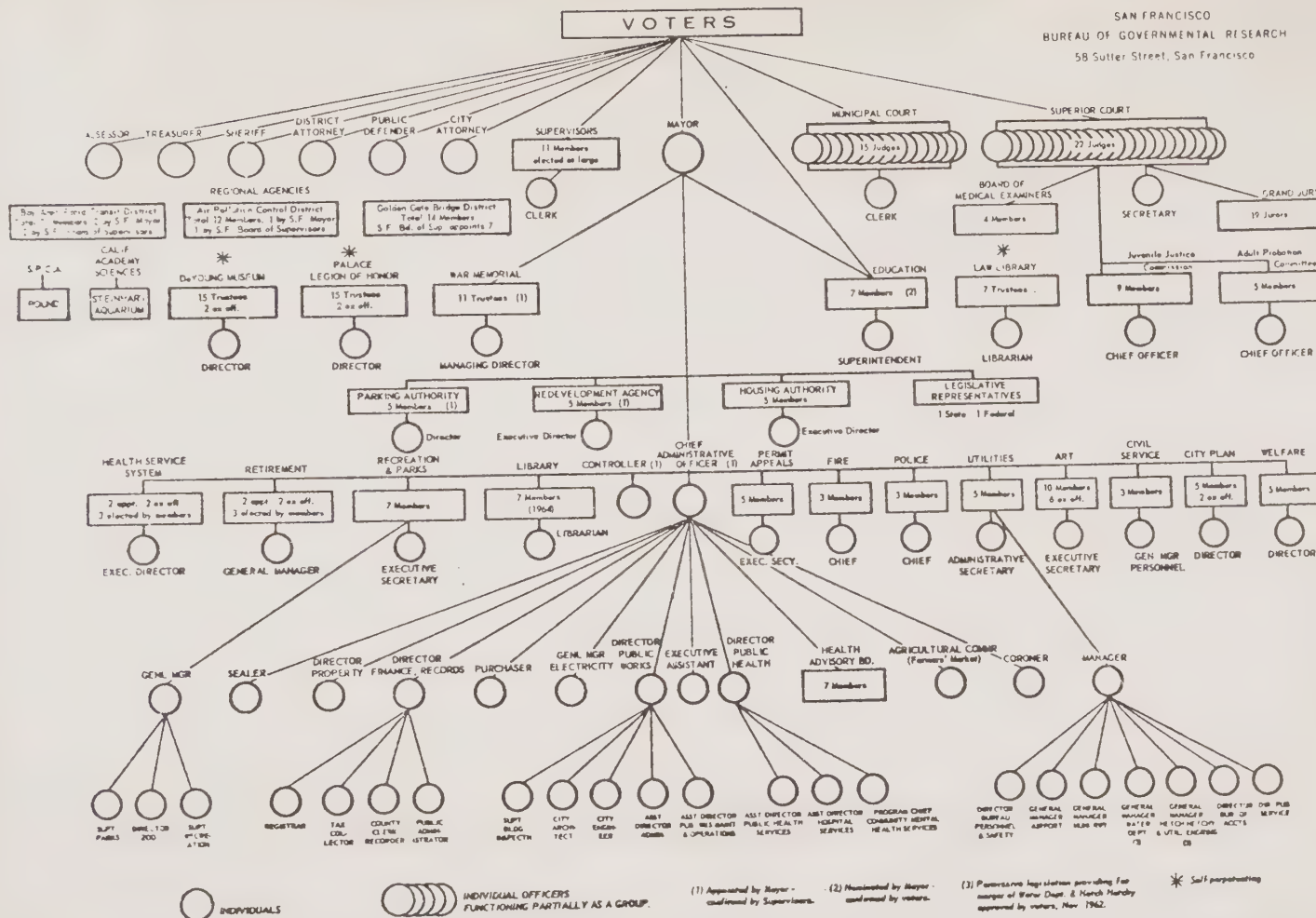


Figure II-20. SAN FRANCISCO CONSOLIDATED  
CITY AND COUNTY GOVERNMENT



and regional plans are in conflict, which prevail? If the differences could not be worked out, under Bagley the local plan would have prevailed, while under Knox the regional plan would have prevailed.

### 1970 Proposal

AB 2310 (Knox) - Assemblyman Knox's bill is an attempt to combine the two above bills with regard to the composition of the regional governments general assembly. This new bill would provide for a 40 member agency board of which 20 shall be selected from the mayors, city councilmen and county supervisors of the nine counties, and 20 shall be elected by the residents of the region. If local and regional plans conflict, and the differences can not be worked out, the regional plan will prevail under this new proposal.

At the present time there is a proliferation of special districts in the Bay Area and some of these districts include parts of San Francisco within their jurisdiction. There are too many such districts to discuss in this report. Our attention will be confined to the few regional special districts established within the last two decades which deal with truly regional problems\*.

### Association of Bay Area Governments (ABAG)

ABAG is a voluntary organization of city and county governments. At present eighty-four cities and eight counties are members (out of a total of ninety-one cities and nine counties that are eligible voting members). ABAG was formed in 1961 and since then has undertaken planning studies on diverse subjects such as regional transportation, open space and parks, criminal justice planning, regional

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\*(There may be some initiative in the near future to coordinate the functioning of the various special districts under a regional organizational similar to the local LAFCO organizations.)

housing, regional geology, regional agriculture, regional fallout shelter plans, and a regional information system. The Association has no governmental powers, and is financed from member dues and assessments (24%) and federal and state grants (71%). ABAG also serves as the metropolitan clearing-house for the review of 45 federal grant programs and federal development projects.

### Bay Conservation

In 1965 the California State Legislature created the Bay Conservation and Development Commission (BCDC). An extremely important stimulus was active agitation by Bay Area residents and ad hoc "Save the Bay" groups. The original BCDC was a four year study only, but was also empowered to administer development controls for the Bay. It is interesting to note that BCDC was created despite the opposition of ABAG (which apparently would rather have made the study and exercised the controls itself).

BCDC submitted its final reports on all aspects of the San Francisco Bay to the 1969 session of the Legislature. Its functions were originally planned to be continued under a limited regional government (BARO) proposed by Assemblyman Knox (AB 711), but when AB 711 ran into stiff opposition, the BCDC section was withdrawn from the bill and passed on its own merits. BCDC is now a permanent commission and is controlled by a 27 member commission whose members are appointed by the governor. The commission confronts the waters and lands of San Francisco Bay plus 100 feet of its surrounding shoreline.

It has been suggested that perhaps other environmental matters of regional concern could be added to BCDC in order to avoid bitter fights in the State Legislature. Furthermore, there is some feeling in Sacramento that the commission should be locally elected.

Finally, there is an attempt in Sacramento this year to

establish a Coast Conservation and Development Commission on the model of BCDC to administer similar temporary controls during a study period.

### Regional Air Pollution

In 1955 the State Legislature created the Bay Area Air Pollution Control District (BAAPD). The governing board is appointed by Bay Area city and county governments from among their own numbers. There is one city and one county official from each of the nine counties on the Board of Directors. The law establishing the BAAPD realized the local nature of pollution, and therefore did not establish any general laws with which the District should work. It has been the job of the District to adopt regulations as it has deemed them necessary. To date there are five regulations, with a sixth one imminent. The present regulations were designed to deal with industrial sources of air pollution for the most part. Vehicles as defined by the Vehicle Code of California and aircraft are excluded from the application of the regulations. BAAPD is locally financed-funds come from increased county taxes.

There are three major criticisms of the BAAPD. First, since the governing board is composed of local politicians, local political influences often affect the decisions of the Board. Second, the staff of the BAAPD has adopted an unofficial policy of working closely with industry-the standards which it sets are more in line with the preferences of industry than with simply strict health standards. In this way, the views of the staff have come to resemble closely those of industry. Implied in this criticism is that industry is not devoting as much attention to the problems of air pollution as it should. Third, some actions of the BAAPD are made without regard to other consequences. For example, the sixth regulation may be a ban on all back-yard burning. The obvious result of this ban will

be to increase the garbage problem around the Bay Area, without making any plans to handle the increase in solid waste.

### Regional Rapid Transit

In 1951 the Bay Area Rapid Transit Commission was created by the State Legislature. Two important stimuli were transit studies done shortly after the War by Bay Area cities and the Federal Government and a proposal in 1947 by the State Division of Highways that a second bridge for automobiles be built parallel and adjacent to the Bay Bridge. This study commission prepared the first regional transportation development plan, and in 1957 was reconstituted as the Bay Area Rapid Transit District (BARTD). Shortened to BART its function is to construct and operate the system prepared by the Commission.

In 1957 the District was comprised of five counties - Alameda, Contra Costa, Marin, San Francisco, and San Mateo. Marin County withdrew from the District chiefly because a study they had made recommended against placing rapid transit facilities on the Golden Gate Bridge. San Mateo County withdrew primarily because the voters didn't feel that the tax increases were commensurate with the service they would be receiving. Today only Alameda, Contra Costa, and San Francisco counties remain.

The governing board of BART is representative, roughly, of the population distribution in the counties and its members are appointees of the various city and county governments (they need not be legislators). BART is an independent public agency with the power to assess taxes of 5¢/\$100 assessed valuation. It may also issue general obligation bonds and has done so. The State Legislature also authorized an additional gasoline tax in the three counties to help the district meet rising costs.

In 1962 the final plan for the initial, locally financed



one billion dollar, 75 mile portion of the system was approved by the voters of the three counties. Currently under construction, BART is expected to carry its first commuters in late 1972.

### San Francisco: the Business Sector

There are three roles which business plays in San Francisco. Its primary concern is to serve as financial broker for the city. This it can do not only by financing projects through bond issues, but also by providing for a stronger tax base. The second role of the business community is to act as a public representative to the city government. The Chamber of Commerce and the Downtown Association are business' most influential spokesmen. Its third function is as an initiator of projects, both private and public (the latter through the Chamber of Commerce). As a community, business approaches this role with the attitude that whatever is good for business is good for San Francisco. This leads to conflict between the concerns of "big-business," small private business, social needs, city desires, and many other interest groups.

In the following discussion, the business sector will be regarded from two points of view: business as a collective institution, and business as a private enterprise.

### Business as a Collective Institution

Business functions as a collective entity through the Chamber of Commerce and the Downtown Association.

The Chamber of Commerce is solely an association of businessmen and is not a branch of the city government; hence it lacks the legal authority of a government agency. It acts, rather, as the most effective voice of the business district. Through its membership, the Chamber of Commerce has contacts with those financially able to support projects or programs which it feels are in San Franciscos' best interest. The Chamber of Commerce has set up standing

committees including, planning, transportation, and housing (Committee details appear in the Appendix) to work on specific problems of the business community. For example, with regard to the Hunter's Point-Bayview redevelopment area, the business community isolated a problem: industry was leaving San Francisco. This would tend to weaken the tax base, and would cause the migration of middle income families out of the city. To help bolster San Francisco economically, actively supported the industrial park planned for the Butchertown area. This location initially appeared to be promising. Hunter's Point, a black community, didn't seem organized enough to resist. Since the area was in poor physical condition, federal funds could be obtained to redevelop the area. Also, industry could be brought into the city on a competitive basis. Other pressure groups formed, and soon the city had to contend with the Chamber of Commerce, the Redevelopment Agency, and the Hunter's Point-Bayview Joint Housing Committee, representing the interests of the residents. The Chamber of Commerce, to crease its pressure, sought to enlist the financial support of its members to help subsidize the project. It then strengthened its position by gathering substantial research data to aid in the planning of the program. With such preparation, the Chamber of Commerce has maintained a solid stand in this current issue, and has made sure the needs of the business community are met.

Being an issue-oriented organization, the Chamber of Commerce is essentially finished with a project once it has been financed. This is apparent from the fact that the issue-oriented committees are not set up on long-term basis or for follow-through purposes.

The Chamber of Commerce also encourages expansion of the business community. Members travel to other cities to urge businesses to establish West Coast branches in San Francisco;

the Chamber of Commerce would like to see an increase in headquarters operations in San Francisco.

In addition to promoting the economic health of San Francisco, the Chamber of Commerce is aware of and informed about local political issues. In some cases, the Board of Supervisors confers with the Chamber of Commerce as a matter of course. The transportation section of the Chamber, for example, is often consulted by at least one member of the Board on all matters dealing with transportation. It is ties like this which enable business to participate in the planning of San Francisco.

#### Business in the Private Sector

There are no reliable figures as to exact percentages, but a significant portion of all the new housing in San Francisco is being built by what may be termed the "private sector." Private sector in this instance refers to a collage of individual entrepreneurs, development corporations, and private finance institutions, which individually or collectively initiate the construction of some type of housing facility.

Understanding the value of this private sector in producing housing for the variety of housing markets in San Francisco is tantamount to understanding how and why they are limited. First, the type of housing that has been, and will continue to be built by the private sector is principally high-rise apartment or condominium complexes, such as the Golden Gateway complex, or Mandarin Towers. This housing is middle or upper middle income housing. There are very few town house (single family) dwellings being built. This is for two important reasons: 1) the lack of "cheap" money for home building, 2) the lack of undeveloped land area within the city limits to make such building financially possible on a large scale. Second, since single family detached dwellings or townhouses are

physically not practicable, the burden of housing demand has fallen on high rise apartment rentals or condominium building. Financing for these structures is restrictive in two ways: 1) of the three types of commercial lending institution, only life insurance companies and mortgage investment firms can handle high rise buildings, savings and loan companies specialize in single family detached dwellings, and banks avoid home or housing loans altogether. But if a high rise is financed totally or partially by a private lending institution the capital return must be high to entice the lending institutions to participate. This results in high rent and/or purchase cost. 2) Land prices are often prohibitive. Thus the limitations of space and finance have at present restricted housing development to middle and upper-middle income dwellings.

The processes whereby the buildings are initiated are complex and not easily standardized. In fact there is no set framework, no standard procedure. Each building project is unique and is initiated, organized and financed according to the particular needs of the project and more importantly, the particular contacts and capabilities of the participants involved.

Figure II-21 illustrates the stages through which a project typically moves from initiation to completion. The condensation is in no way standard, but it is typical of what can be done in the private sector.

## 2. Private Sector

Community organizations are as much a part of a city as the formal government; they survive because of and despite city hall. Frequently a neighborhood will rally its residents around a specific issue, as a zoning change or routing of a thoroughfare through the area. The city government may be inconvenienced by these action groups, but



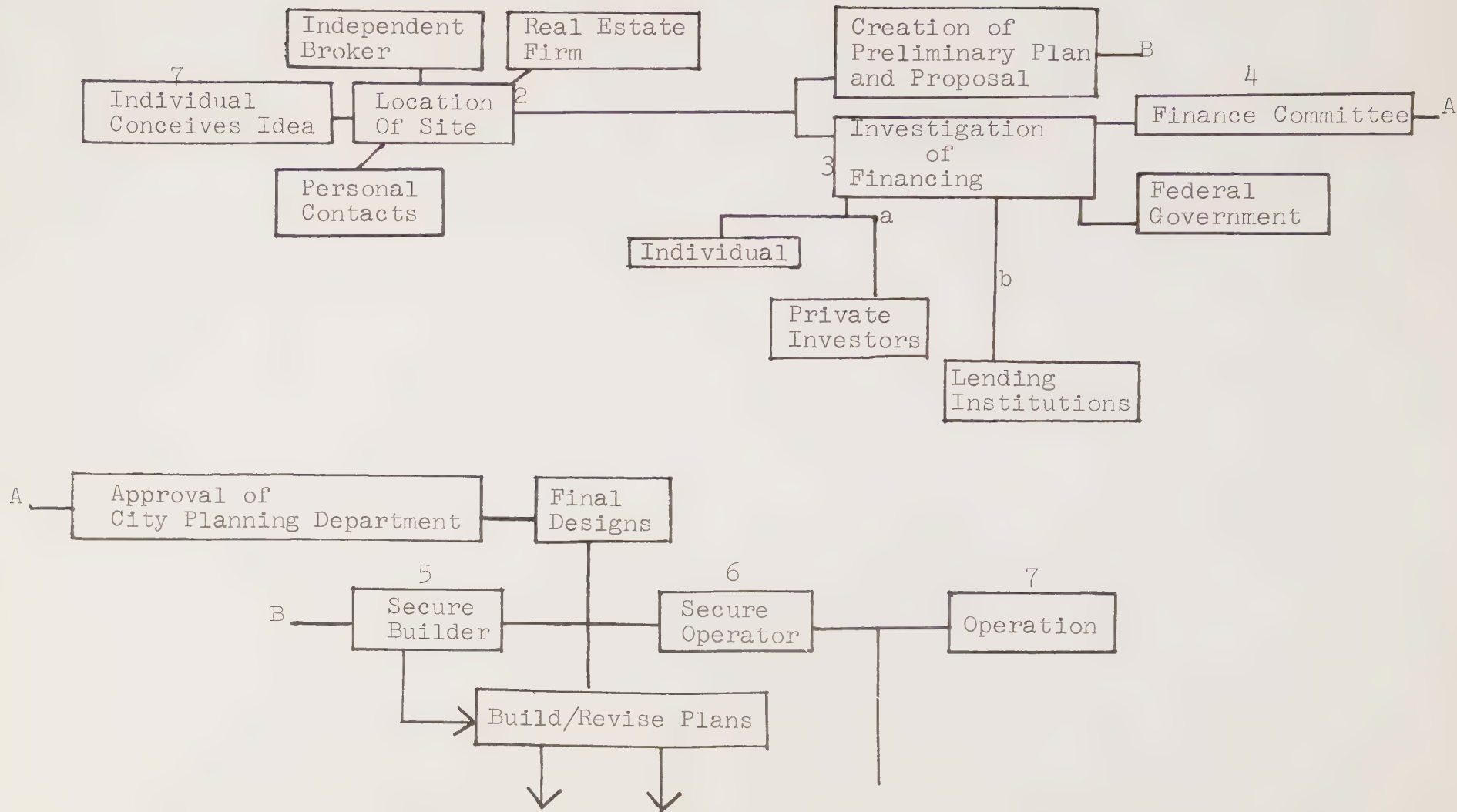


Figure II-21. STAGES OF A PROJECT FROM INITIATION TO COMPLETION

rarely can residents acquire enough political clout to force the reversal of a decision. Too often the groups form around one issue and dissolve just as they are beginning to know the corridors of city hall: the dispute is settled definitively and they return home. The result is obvious: the disintegrates. It may have been on the verge of acquiring some political leverage, but its issue has been settled, and its members lose their interest and therefore their solidarity.

San Francisco's notable exception to this rule is the Mission Coalition Organization (MCO). Designed to be the advocate of the general welfare of Mission District residents, the MCO has obtained both the support and participation of Mission residents. It has won some victories from city hall, on behalf of the entire Mission District. Its multi-issue nature enables it to survive from problem to problem, slowly gathering bits of political respectability in the eyes of city politicians.

There are other community groups in San Francisco organized as coalitions unified in the community interest. They suffer, more acutely than the MCO, the chronic problems of a grass-roots organization: lack of funds, of competent management, of adequate commitment by members to see a problem through to its resolution. Three of the more active community groups will be discussed below, in addition to the Mission Coalition Organization.

### The Mission District

The primary organization in the Mission District is the Mission Coalition Organization (MCO). The MCO had its beginning at the Spanish Speaking Conference in February, 1968 when guest speaker Mayor Alioto suggested that the Mission District form a representative organization and seek a \$150,000 Model Cities Grant. Largely through Ben Martinez, the current president, the MCO came into being in

San Francisco in July, 1968. The organization was patterned after a model developed by the Industrial Organization Foundation of Chicago, Illinois and established the goal of protecting the rights and well-being of the Mission District residents. To accomplish this, Ben Martinez realized that "a single-issue movement dies as it achieves results (and) only a multiple issue movement can sustain power." He took a dynamic step forward by hiring a former Saul Alinsky aid, Mike Miller as a community organizer. The MCO emerged at the founding convention held October 4, 1968 as a multi-issue pressure group with strict parliamentary by-laws using Robert's Rules of Order. The MCO has now evolved through three Annual Conventions to a coalition of over 100 member organizations using the following organizational chart (Table II-5):

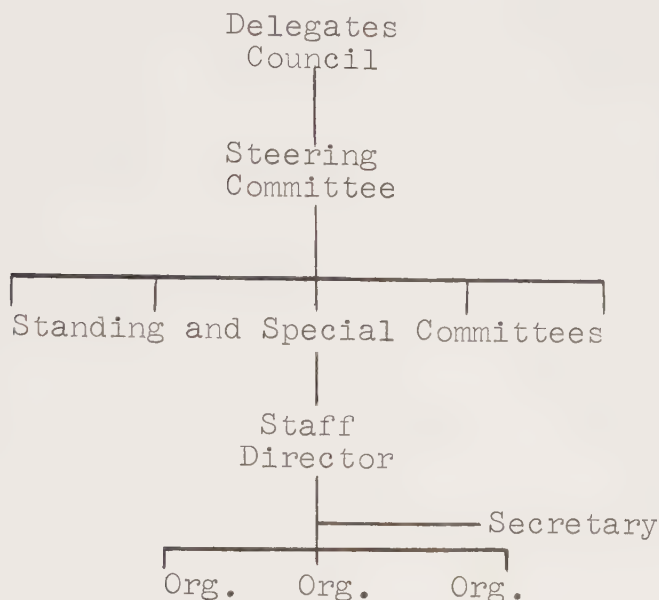


Table II-5. MCO ORGANIZATIONAL CHART

### Annual Convention

The annual convention is attended by delegates of the member organizations on the following representative basis:

<u>Organizational Membership</u>	<u>Delegates and Alternates</u>
10-50	20% of membership & 3 alt.
51-200	12 delegates & 4 alt.
201----	15 delegates & 5 alt.

The annual convention elects its officers, adopts platforms and amends by-laws. The officers are:

- |                         |                          |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. President            | 16. Filipino-American VP |
| 2. Executive vice-pres. | 17. Anglo-American VP    |
| 3. "                    | 18. South-American VP    |
| 4. "                    | 19. American Indian VP   |
| 5. "                    | 20. Pacific Islands VP   |
| 6. "                    | 21. Nicaraguan VP        |
| 7. "                    | 22. Salvadorian VP       |
| 8. "                    | 23. Business VP          |
| 9. Corresponding Sec.   | 24. Labor VP             |
| 10. Recording Sec.      | 25. Clergy VP            |
| 11. Treasurer           | 26. Block Club VP        |
| 12. Mexican-American VP | 27. National VP          |
| 13. Central-American VP | 28. Senior Citizens VP   |
| 14. Puerto Rican VP     | 29. Youth VP             |
| 15. Afro-American VP    |                          |

### Delegates Council

The Delegates Council consists of five representatives of each member organization, MCO officers and standing committee chairmen. The purpose of the council is to meet monthly and review the interim decisions of the Steering Committee and implement policies that the annual convention has adopted.

### Steering Committee

The Steering Committee is composed of elected officers



and chairmen of standing committees. Meeting weekly, they are responsible to the Delegates Council for coordinating and approving all public activities of the various committees. They insure that the directions formulated during the Annual Convention are followed.

#### Standing and Special Committees

- |                       |                           |
|-----------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Housing            | 8. Economic Development   |
| 2. Education          | 9. Police                 |
| 3. Employment         | 10. Consumer              |
| 4. Recreation         | 11. Community Maintenance |
| 5. Health and Welfare | 12. Youth                 |
| 6. Planning           | 13. Tax Policy            |
| 7. Finance            |                           |

These committees, within their realm of specialty, are responsible for the progress toward MCO objectives. Special committees are created when necessary and have the status of "standing committee" until dissolved.

#### Staff Director and Organizers

The staff director and the three organizers are the only paid members of the MCO. They have responsibility for the day to day operation of the coalition and have varying degrees of expertise in community organization.

The MCO operates under the theory that to promote broadly based community support it is necessary to attack community problems on a wide front. During the initial months the MCO acted on problems which had a high probability of success and, after gaining public support, went on to attack more significant and difficult problems. To date it has several notable accomplishments:

- The City of San Francisco recognizes the MCO as the sole voice of the Mission District in negotiations on the Model Cities Planning Program.
- The MCO acting for residents was able to convince the city to close 26th street between Harrison and Treat streets so that Garfield Square could be extended and

26th street could be used for needed basket ball courts.

- The MCO convinced Ellis D. Sox, San Francisco Public Health Director, to sign an agreement giving the MCO the power to elect 2/3 of the policy board to govern the Mission Mental Health Center.
- The Mission Coalition helped the Welfare Rights Organization establish the right of mothers on welfare to set aside income for their children's education without having their welfare checks reduced.
- The MCO backed the Junipero Serra Parents Association in their struggle which led to portable classrooms for overcrowded schools.
- The MCO was instrumental in having the parking meters on 26th street removed so residents could have free parking in front of their homes.
- The Coalition has in the past negotiated and is currently negotiating with landlords in the Mission District to have rents frozen except for cost-of-living increases and have a set time schedule for needed repairs in return for establishing the tenants' responsibility for proper care of the dwelling and promptness of rent payments.

With all of the formality of the Mission Coalition, it is not an organization that was created to secure public money but rather a means by which people can help one another. The coalition operates on a \$40,000 budget which comes from the San Francisco Foundation, the Episcopal church, the Presbyterian church, the Baptist church and the United Church of Christ. This money is used to pay for the \$30 per month office and the Staff Director who receives \$9,000 per year as well as the three other paid organizers and all other incidental expenses. The MCO is currently attempting to become self-supporting by selling raffle tickets in the Mission District. If they succeed, it will show all would-be opponents that the MCO does in fact have broadly based support and will make the residents of the Mission realize that they can make their desires felt by working together as a united group to help one another.

A key indicator to the future development of the Mission

Coalition is the fact that there are no other organizations (which are not members of the MCO) that can claim even moderate support in the Mission District. The major member organizations of the MCO have very limited goals, such as the Mission Merchants Association's goal of exploiting Mission street as a business district. At this point, the MCO seems fated indeed to become the "Voice of the Mission" and to gain a broader base of support from which it can promote the welfare of the Mission District.

### Sunnydale

Sunnydale has three active community organizations: the Sunnydale Citizens League, Economic Opportunity Council, and the Sons of Sunnydale. A faltering organization is also discussed briefly here. (The Welfare Rights Council bears weight in Sunnydale, but at the time of this writing, not much is known about it.)

The Sunnydale Citizens League is a tenants' organization which encompasses everyone in Sunnydale plus other existing organizations (the Catholic Church is the only organization which has refused to join). It is also the only organization with a written constitution. As in most community groups, most members defer to the judgment and leadership of the few. In this area, the few are predominantly middle-aged white women.

It was founded on May 10, 1965. The driving force behind its inception was Mrs. Mollison, the current chairman. The surrounding middle class Visitacion Valley had written derogatory articles about the Housing Project in a local paper. This so infuriated Mrs. Mollison that she wanted groups formed which could formally respond to the adversary. It has not funding to speak of, but apparently can get donations when necessary. When needed, door-to-door votes in the area have proved effective as opinion polls. On mass interest issues, a full 70% of the populace might participate

in these polls.

The goal of the League, as stated in their Constitution are:

- To serve as an instrument of communication for and within the community.
- To promote the welfare of each member of this community as a whole.
- To promote friendship and understanding among all members of this community.
- To encourage maximum participation on the part of the residents of this community in carrying out the aims and purpose of this organization.

There are five elected officers: the Chairman, Vice-Chairman, the Recording Secretary, Corresponding Secretary, and the Treasurer. Standing Committees includes the Executive Committee, composed of the officers, the Membership Committee, the Publicity Committee, the Housing Committee and the Human Relation Committee, and finally the Education Committee.

The Citizens League has been responsible for getting street lights; it has coordinated efforts with Hunter's Point for protest marches. On the other hand, it discouraged rioting when some Hunter's Point residents rioted last year.

The Economic Opportunity Council is a federally funded outside agency. In a ghetto area this is enough to arouse antipathy and suspicion. Hence the people who work in the Sunnydale office-Mrs. Herrerra and her boss, Mrs. Frierson-are caught in a real dilemma. They feel that they are on the community's side, but their illusory romance seems to be one-sided, for some of the community definitely distrusts them. The police public relations officer, a controversial figure in Sunnydale, often stops by the EOC. This is sufficient reason for the more militant to brand the EOC as a two-faced tool of City Hall.

The EOC workers are all-purpose advocates of community



growth. They encourage self-help and self-motivation.

The EOC tactics involve working and building on already existing groups. Both Mrs. Frierson and Mrs. Herrerra work with the Citizens' League. When the EOC sees an issue, it organizes the people to attack the problem. Should suspicion and antipathy grow or, on the other hand, if genuine enthusiasm for an EOC project should build, the EOC will step aside and let the interested parties take over. (This is what happened with school monitors.)

The Sons of Sunnydale is an organization centered around youth service to the community. With many of the Sunnydale homes being fatherless, it was hoped by some that these young men could serve as guiding male figures for the children. These boys have taken over many of the surveillance problems in the school playyards and buses.

The SOS, is more activist (not really "militant" as the term is used today). Both want to take over Sunnydale's leadership. However, they do recognize the Citizens League (of which they're members). The only problem is that their ambitions are not grounded in organization. The SOS changes its president frequently and has an ever-changing membership roll with no more than a handful of actives at a time.

Information about BEAU is included here as an historical note, for it appears that BEAU may already be defunct.

This is an amorphous group. The idea for the organization came to Sunnydale with George Davis one year ago. It has been very hard, however, to determine what he has done, and now he has even supposed to have left the group he started. Mark White is currently the acknowledged leader.

It is a small business enterprise group. They have thought about setting up community co-ops. However, there are other plans not known to the community - a fact which has not impressed some of the other leaders.

Backing for BEAU supposedly has been by a group of

professionals, but it is impossible to obtain any definite list. It has an eleven man board of directors (ten if Mr. Davis dropped out). If financed, these men's wives will be the secretaries.

They asked for \$2000 from the Visitation Valley Coordinating Committee (an overseer of Sunnydale) for operating costs. Bill Smith, head of the Visitation Valley Center, has tried to associate with BEAU; he is a new white community worker in the area.

Observation: It is interesting to note that the Black Panthers have no foothold in Sunnydale. They brought an organizer in but within two weeks his effort fizzled out. Shortly thereafter, the Panthers asked to run a breakfast program in the Housing Administration Health and Recreation Center. The Housing Authority had rules concerning political use of the facilities, but discretely dropped the hotcake into the hands of the Citizens League. A door-to-door vote ascertained that few wanted them.

### Sunset

The organization in the Sunset area that appears to have the most potential for effective community organization is the Sunset-Parkside Education and Action Committee (SPEAK). Two striking facets of SPEAK should not escape attention. First, SPEAK is a multi-issue oriented organization that stands to achieve permanence because it is not tied solely to one sector of public concern that may fade from view as public interest shifts to new problems. And secondly, SPEAK is professionally staffed by persons that know how to apply the community organizational skills that have proven their worth in other parts of the country to the job of helping the Sunset area residents advance their own interests.

SPEAK was founded in January of 1969 as a coalition of community groups and individuals that would be broadly based enough to survive the rise and fall of specific issues.

Structurally, SPEAK is directed by an elected Steering Committee, and administered by executive officers (President, Secretary, Treasurer) and a paid staff consisting of a full-time Co-ordinator and part-time assistants. Although SPEAK holds bi-monthly public meetings, their real work is performed by smaller task forces that are appointed to study specific issues and recommend action on the part of the community. At present these task forces include:

- Public and Parochial Education Task Force
- Voter Education Task Force
- Public Safety Task Force
- Health Task Force
- Mass Transit Task Force
- Taxation Task Force
- A group studying the possibility of setting up a Citizens Planning Council.

SPEAK is both an organization of organizations and an organization of individuals. SPEAK's paid membership presently totals 17 local organizations and 132 individuals, each of whom pays an annual membership fee of five dollars. Membership is open to any local resident or group. Additional income to meet their annual \$12,000 budget comes from local gifts and church support. The group expects to remain a permanent feature of the community, but will probably need to secure some foundation financial support in order to become self-sustaining.

The primary goal of SPEAK is to serve as a vehicle through which community desires may be translated into effective action. This primary goal manifests itself in terms of specific projects that are handled by the various task forces. These project objectives are both long and short range in nature.

At the immediate time, SPEAK is coming to grips with a wide list of community problems. The Public and Parochial

Education Task Force is primarily concerned with improvement of the quality of education in the area. This task force has begun by studying the alternatives that have been made available to the schools by newly developed educational innovations. Presentations of these findings are now being made to the Sunset area residents in order to inform them and enlist their support for future school reforms that SPEAK may decide to press for. The Voter Education Task Force has prepared a Ballot Measure Fact Sheet outlining the pros and cons of the major city and state propositions facing the voters in the upcoming election. Public hearings are being sponsored to discuss these issues. The Public Safety Task Force has just completed a project that hopes to improve police-youth relations by arranging for students to ride in police cars and gain a first hand appreciation for the policeman's job and problems. The Health Task Force is working to improve clinic facilities for the area residents at the University of California Medical Center. Also the Mass Transit Task Force has just completed a successful drive to prevent the construction of a 25 million subway for the MUNI under the West Portal Avenue business district which was heavily opposed by the area residents. They are also working to improve the present MUNI service in the Sunset.

In the long run, SPEAK hopes to set up an independent community-run Citizens Planning Council. This commission would be assisted by its own professional city planning staff that would be able to draw up plans for physical improvements in the community that best serve the interests of the Sunset-Parkside area residents. It would be separate from the central city government, and thus be able to develop its expertise solely to enhance the specific character and style of life in this community.

Active homeowners' associations in the district play a



large part in representing the residents of the Sunset area before the city government. Among these groups are the West Portal Home Owners' Association, the Parkside District Improvement Club, the Sunset Community Improvement Club, and the Sunset Heights Improvement Club. The Sunset Community Improvement Club is considered to be influential in the affairs of the Sunset largely due to the presence of Margarite Warren, its past-President. That she is particularly effective in making her opinions heard is shown by her recent and controversial appointment by the Mayor to the committee studying City Charter revision.

The desires of the Sunset residents are further represented by a variety of other interest groups and civic organizations. Merchant's associations representing West Portal Avenue, the Taraval-Parkside shopping district, and the Clement Street merchants help to give business a voice in the community. There are forty churches in the Sunset-Parkside area, of which at least 20% are actively concerned with community issues. Educational concerns are voiced by the PTA's and the Parent's Guilds of the twenty public and parochial schools in the district. Police, medical, library, and recreational services personnel are also interested in working toward the achievement of community objectives.

Under present conditions, it would be expected that most of the PTA, church and merchant's associations would continue to function in their own areas of concern much as they have in the past. On the other hand, the home owners associations will need to actively recruit new, younger members if they wish to assure self-perpetuation. As the problems of advancing age approach the long-time residents of the Sunset, the old line home owner's associations will probably decline in influence. SPEAK is lucky in that its membership draws upon the younger families in the Sunset as well as upon the self-perpetuating nature of its member organizations. Neither of these factors assures SPEAK's future

development, but both seem to be hopeful signs that SPEAK may be able to function constructively over the twenty year time span considered by the Stanford study.

The exact future route of development of SPEAK is not entirely certain because the issues that it addresses will change with the times. But a good projection based on the experience of similar community groups would predict that the Task Force approach to projects will remain essentially the same, while the paid membership base of SPEAK will shift to rely more heavily on the use of SPEAK as an umbrella coalition of community interest groups.

#### Western Addition

The primary organization in the Western Addition community of San Francisco is the Western Addition Community Organization (WACO). Another smaller and more limited organization is the Western Addition Project Area Committee (WAPAC). The Black Panthers are also active in the area.

#### WACO

When the San Francisco Redevelopment Agency began its construction in the A-1 area of the Western Addition, about 6,000 people, mostly Blacks and Japanese, were relocated out of the area with the promise that they could return after construction was completed. Unfortunately these people could not return to the high-rise apartments that were constructed because the rent was too high. The redevelopment seemed to be completely outside the control of the people affected.

When the San Francisco Redevelopment Agency announced plans for Western Addition A-2 area, the community became very concerned because the same procedure was going to be followed, i.e., redevelopment without the consent of the community. On December 14, 1966, six people met to discuss the redevelopment plans; the concept of a broadly based community organization designed to "fight the Redevelopment

Agency" came into existence.

The primary goal of WACO is to preserve the Western Addition community by resisting the San Francisco Redevelopment Agency that is destroying the community by building new housing units. WACO considers itself the community input into the decision-making process for issues that affect the community. It provides this input by being the watchdog and advisor of WAPAC, the organization that works directly with the redevelopment agency.

The other objectives of WACO are:

- More involvement in education issues, specifically in developing a Western Addition Education Complex.
- More involvement in welfare rights groups to insure that recipients get fully what they deserve.
- More involvement in employment. WACO is now on the Advisory Board of the California State Service Center at Turk and Fillmore Streets, a division of the California Department of Employment in the Western Addition.
- More involvement in organizing tenants unions to insure that tenants renting from the redevelopment agency obtain fair rates.
- More involvement in any other issues present in the Western Addition.

WACO is now composed of over 50 groups, with the churches the main leaders. Meetings are held every Monday evening. The chairman, since December 1, 1969 has been and is Mr. Charles Turner, a business man in the Western Addition for many years. A number of committees are selected to investigate special issues and report at the weekly meetings.

In its fight against the San Francisco Redevelopment Agency, a suit was filed in December 1967 by the Legal Assistance Foundation on behalf of WACO charging that the agency had no properly certified plan for relocating residents displaced by redevelopment construction. After two years, in December 1969, Judge Sweigert handed down the decision in favor of WACO and issued an injunction which in

effect withheld federal funds until requirements were met. The problem still is not resolved since new federal funds are being cut and people are still being relocated from areas that have already been funded.

In May 1970, two members of WACO and the community accompanied Mayor Alioto to Washington, D.C. on his mission to obtain more federal funds for San Francisco.

The Western Addition Project Area Committee (WAPAC) was established in the fall of 1969 as stated in the Urban Renewal Handbook, a Housing and Urban Development (HUD) publication. It was welcomed by the San Francisco Redevelopment Agency, since WAPAC is a much smaller organization and might be considered weaker than WACO. WACO considered the move as another tactic of the government to suppress it as the voice of the community, but since WAPAC is the "official" voice of the people, WACO keeps close ties with WAPAC and exerts a strong influence. In fact, one might say that WAPAC represents WACO and the community in its relationship with the Redevelopment Agency.

WAPAC's composition follows the HUD publication specifications:

"A Project Area Committee (PAC), made up of residents of the project area, shall be established for each urban renewal project in which residential rehabilitation activities are contemplated."

"a. The Local Public Agency (LPA) shall work closely with the PAC to assure that project residents participate in the formulation and execution of plans for renewal of the area and improvement of the condition of its resident. b. Sufficient information about the project shall be made available to project residents to enable them to participate knowledgeably."

It seems that in fact, the Redevelopment Agency makes most of its plans before and merely "goes through the motion" of sending the completed plans to WAPAC for approval. It may not matter if WAPAC disapproves, since the plans have usually progressed too far to be changed. The Agency has



also been known to submit a plan to WAPAC in the morning and ask for a community input at an afternoon meeting. There is little time for WAPAC to get a community reaction, and the Agency's in such a situation will not be overridden.

Only minor changes have been made as a result of the input of WAPAC into the decision-making process. The most promising accomplishment that has resulted is that the agency and WAPAC do work closer together as time passes.\* The attitude of the agency had changed from an interview in February and a second interview in May; there may be growing understanding on both sides.

Due to its lack of political and economic power, WACC will at best slow down the redevelopment of the Western Addition according to the plans of the San Francisco Redevelopment Agency.

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\*Most of the information above was derived from literature and interviews with WAPAC personnel. Further investigation is definitely needed for more effective evaluation.

There did seem to be reluctance to discuss with one they considered a "white, middle-class student", who could not offer them anything substantial, like a large amount of money. Most of the time the discussion was in generalities on the subjects of being dictated to by the government and that the community should have a voice in its own destiny. A common complaint was "the government has so much money and they don't spend it on us poor people. After all, we pay taxes too and our men and boys fight and die in the army. Give us the money and we'll fix the place up. It is not our fault that we are poor."

The people of Western Addition are mostly poor blacks. They do want a better life to include more income. (Who doesn't?) They feel the reason they are poor is due to a lack of education, training and skills needed for good jobs. The reason for this lack is due to a racist attitude of the white middle and upper class people. They feel that the rest of the people really don't care about poor people enough to do anything except study them.

Why do the people of Western Addition fight redevelopment? First of all, redevelopment didn't stem from the community. Secondly, they don't have the money to pay the new rents and there isn't enough money to subsidize rents for everyone in need.

Since the formation of WAPAC, the agency tends to go directly to WAPAC without consulting WACO. It is growing apparent that redevelopment will not be able to supply housing for everyone in the Western Addition. At present, about one-half of the working people earn less than \$4,000 a year. If these same people remained in the redeveloped area, the only thing changed in the community would be the buildings. New buildings will not raise the income of the present residents and will only slightly improve the standard of living.

Since A-2 was first planned, more housing has been designated for public housing or housing with rent subsidies. The question is how much new housing will be available for the present residents, and where will the rest of the people move their ghetto?

### 3. Urban Planning

Introduction - As a result of the diversity of an urban population, a city has a multiplicity of functions. Among the many functions are the numerous essential and non-essential municipal services which the city must provide. In addition, when particularly disturbing or detrimental conditions arise, it may be necessary to act to alleviate them. This can result in the creation of special programs which assume a degree of permanence the longer they are in existence. Often, both standard services and special programs are disappointingly unsuccessful because of outright failure or damaging compromise. Following is a list of factors which have been observed as hampering efficiency of city services.

Lack of coordination. The service or program which is undertaken may require cooperation and coordination among several city agencies or departments. This coordination may take one of two forms. Active coordination may be necessary when one agency requires material support from others in order to execute its function. On the other hand, it may be sufficient to ensure that another organization is not actively pursuing a competitive or objective, either inadvertently or deliberately. When such active or tacit coordination is not forthcoming, the performance of any function is frustrated, perhaps to the point of having no positive effect.

Lack of Comprehensiveness. A problem common to city services which is related to the previous one is the lack of comprehensiveness in any endeavor. In many cases, a simplistic evaluation of a need or special problem results in the dutiful provision of a particular service or program. Single-mindedness of purpose then masks the fact that there are additional crucial factors contributing to the problems which have not been noticed, not understood, or not taken

into consideration. In many urban problems, there is a failure to realize that the problem does not have a simple, neat solution and in fact, has a larger scale than the typical organization and orientation of city services. The consequence of not approaching the problem comprehensively is that the unsatisfactory situation is not likely to respond to the prescribed treatment.

Lack of Continuing Assessment. Another characteristic often found associated with less than successful city services or programs is inadequate evaluation of their effect. The inadequacy may derive from several causes. To begin with, very often an appropriate measure of the performance of the program is not selected. The probability of this occurring is enhanced by the "intangible" character of the output of many municipal programs. To measure the effectiveness of the program a surrogate may be selected which in fact does not represent the effectiveness. A common error is to measure an input to a program or a service rather than an output, consciously or unconsciously assuming a direct relationship. Typically, this assumption leads to a concentration on improving the inappropriate index and a tendency to avoid developing a superior measure.

Continuous monitoring of the performance of the program is necessary for an accurate evaluation of its success—that is, to ascertain whether it is having the desired effect. Such assessment is often not relished when success has not been forthcoming, and this general state of affairs suggests that evaluation by an independent party is a practical need. Another difficulty is the sluggishness which develops when a redirection of the service or program is evident. (Continuing evaluation has no value if the results are not acted upon.)

Insufficient Involvement of Subjects - It is usual that when a city program is brought to bear upon a problem, the



program is conceived and implemented by an organization external to the subject population. This often means that a city agency executes a program designed for a certain stratum of its population, according to what it judges to be best in the way of solving the group's problem. However, only rarely is the applied knowledge and expertise so outstanding that lack of support and involvement by the populace does not frustrate the program. Contributions by the affected group to the planning and implementation of improvement programs is now virtually a requirement in order for the programs to have a reasonable chance of success.

Disagreement over Goals and Objectives - Another source of difficulty for city activities is the diversity of opinion about what the problem really is and the best way to tackle it. The diversity originates in the partial or biased information acquired by the individuals, groups, or organizations with a stake in the problem or its resolution. In the case of severe disputes, the organization which controls the source of funds carries the most weight and hence its point of view usually dominates the others. Furthermore, this organization is almost never an organization of the people in whose benefit the action is being taken. When agreement cannot be reached over goals, it may still be possible to concur on most or all objectives. The distinction in terminology is that objectives are here to be understood as specific programmatic actions, a level below the overall goals. Thus, cooperation on a program does not necessarily imply that there are goals held in common. It is at the level of objectives that basic agreement must be reached. A minimum requirement is to ensure that all parties have access to all relevant information and knowledgeable opinions. There is then a better basis for discussion and possible agreement.

These are student observations.

### Framework

A framework to keep in mind when planning is being considered is the "planning matrix". The planning process may be defined in terms of the functions which are a part of it. These functions, and consequently the process, are neither unique nor strictly sequential, so the following procedure may be regarded as a structure imposed for convenience in discussion. In the broadest terms, the planning process involves the generation of plans, the evaluation of those plans, selection of a course of action, and implementation of that decision. With slight elaboration, the planning process becomes:

- Establish overall goals and program objectives.
- Generate alternative ways to achieve objectives.
- Evaluate the alternative programs.
- Select a program.
- Implement the program.
- Measure the effectiveness of the program and compare it to the objectives.

An additional dimension of structure may be employed to describe the various groups of people or organizations who have direct or indirect interest in planning in the urban region constituent parties are:

- The Department of City Planning
- All other city agencies which provide municipal services.
- The private sector, including labor and business.
- Residents, by geographic, social, or economic association.
- Elected officials.
- The surrounding region.

A matrix can now be formed with one dimension being the steps of the "planning process" and the other being the constituencies. This framework should not be construed as

defining a hierarchy of planners. It is simply a statement of what any good planner should be doing and who has an interest in the planning process and the results accrued therefrom. Both decentralized and centralized planning can be discussed in terms of this framework.

This structure is not necessarily the best skeletal arrangement, but it does facilitate the gathering of information and the discussion of proposed changes.

Observations - To add some depth to the comments about the factors listed earlier, we turn to some observations made during the study of the city by a spectrum of investigators. In general, the state of planning in San Francisco is poor, as it is in most cities. It is failing despite the good intentions of those responsible over the years. The following comments are both analytical and suggestive, clearly pinpointing causes of failure and remedial ideas.

#### Chinatown

Demographic Data: There are about 50,000 Chinese (about  $\frac{1}{2}$  under the age of 25) living in a narrow strip surrounding Grant Avenue. More and more Chinese are entering professional fields and moving out of the ghetto. The Chinese are industrious and hardworking, but need better jobs at higher wages. More than 3000 women work in garment factories (12+ hrs/day) for less than \$1/hr.

Racial and National Character: Chinatown is almost all Chinese, about  $\frac{1}{2}$  born in China.

Family: Traditionally very strong. Parents have very strong control (suppressive) over children. Kids are rebelling--e.g., parents look down on mixed dating, but the kids frequently date whites and blacks. The woman holds a rather dominant role in the family. Social life is a very important part of life in Chinatown.

Facilities: In general, facilities are greatly overcrowded and inadequate for the number of people, e.g., one playground in all Chinatown; as many as 10 men may share one small room. The overcrowding is reflected in a Tuberculosis rate nearly three times that for the whole city.

Education: The median school years completed is about 8 yrs. for males and 10 yrs. for females. This is improving, especially with the new immigrants.

General: Chinatown lacks unity and effective leadership. The old power structure, represented by the "six companies", maintains its official position of leadership, but has in fact lost most of its power. It is ultra-conservative and seems only interested in maintaining the status quo. The people themselves don't see the problem; they see the youth rebellion, but they don't know why. Most wait quietly and patiently for a "great leader" to come and cure the ills of Chinatown.

#### Mission District

##### Demographic Data and Racial Characteristics

Total Population: 132,100\*

White: 118,900 (90%)

"Spanish surname: 23,800 (18%) (34% of ss foreign born)

Non-white: 13,200 (10%)

Black: 6,700 (5%)

Despite such a large Anglo population, the Mission has a predominant Latin flavor, particularly in the primarily residential areas. Immigrants from Central America comprise the majority of the foreign born; Mexico is about sixth in representation. Most of the Blacks live in the Bernal Heights area or on Protrero Hill. A "significant" number of Indians also live in the Mission District.

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\* 1968 Health Department estimates.



## Family Structure

Only qualitative data exist here since the 1960 census. Generally, the Mission contains both an unusually large number of single people and large families; at least 8% of the Mission families have six or more members.

### Sunnydale

#### A. Basic Demographic Information

1. Boundaries of complete housing project:  
Hahn St., Velasco St., Brookdale St.,  
Sunnydale St.,
2. Boundaries for neighborhood focus:  
Hahn St., Blythdale Ave., Santos St.,  
Sunnydale Ave.
3. Racial make-up:  
Approximately 50% Black, balance is a mixture of White, Chicano, Filipino.
4. Appropriate 1960 census tract:  
M10
5. Population Density:  
80/acre (1968)
6. Birthrate:  
.035 (1968)
7. Housing Project:  
Units are 20-25 yrs. old; low income

#### B. Family Structure

High incidence of fatherless homes.

Active community leaders are mostly middle-age women and young men (15-25 yrs.).

Many mothers managing homes and have large numbers of children. Teenage boys tend to rebel against patriarchal situations (perhaps a strong desire to assert masculinity).

Many college age men trying to aid by supplying male guidance in schools, playgrounds, etc.

C. Facilities

Housing Administration Building: Health and Recreation Center (at 1654 Sunnydale Ave.) has a gym which is being reopened.

John McClaren Park - outside playground, indoor swimming pool, fields, golf course.

Of the five local playgrounds, only one has a paid director. These playgrounds could provide invaluable community centers in the evenings. They can help kids to stay off the streets.

D. Organizations

BEAU (Business Development)

Sons of Sunnydale: an organization of young men whose aim is to provide missing male guidance for children in the community.

E. Miscellaneous Comments

Young black college students, with whom we have had extended conversations, have emphasized:

1. The need for the community to develop its power both financially and politically.
2. Violence is a tool to be used when the need dictates.
3. People in the community must be unified in order to fight evident exploitation.
4. Many rebellious youth must be employed this summer if severe problems are to be avoided.

Sunset Area

Basic Demographic Data

1. Boundaries: Bounded by ocean, Twin Peaks, and Portola.
2. Population (1960): 102,000
3. Racial: 95% white
4. Population Density (1960): Along beach and park--30-59.9 persons/gross acre. Rest of Sunset--.7-29.9 persons/gross acre.

5. Dwelling units and vacancy rate west of Twin Peaks and Sunset: (1968) Dwelling units: 55,655  
Vacancy rate: 0.65%
6. % of family households (1960): 81% and over
7. Median family income: \$7500-\$9500
8. Age: Persons under 18: 20-30%  
Persons 65 and over: 11-15%
9. Land used for commerce: 1-4.99%
10. Approximate birthrate: .012 births/pop.
11. Approximate 1960 census tracts: Q1A, Q1B, P1, P2,  
(total pop. 57,000, 1960)

### Description

Sunset is a predominantly white area, and Irish Catholics are the largest single ethnic group. The population is extremely stable. There is little construction and few vacancies. There is a mixture of white and blue collar workers. A lot of them are civil servants (police, firemen). Since the area has been growing older, there have been fewer children; this is reflected in the non-compulsory bussing of black children to Sunset schools to fill up the schools. The area voted for Kennedy in 1960 and voted for a liberal congressman (McCarthy). Sunset is not so much reactionary or conservative as apathetic, although there is growing fear. There is little commerce, mainly on Irving St. Homes are in the \$30,000 range. In the northwest part of Sunset by the Great Highway, there are younger people, Blacks, Chinese, and "hippie" types. This area is deteriorating in relation to the rest of Sunset. Major issues are education, crime, mental health, parking, taxes, and transportation (there is opposition to the proposed construction of trolley tracks under four blocks of West Portal Avenue).

### Recreation Areas (there is not a great demand for parks)

Golden Gate Park

West Sunset Playground

Stern Park

School grounds

### Organizations

SPEAK -- new group organized to promote community involvement

6 community improvement groups

several merchant associations

15 public schools

5 parochial schools

35 small Protestant churches

5 Catholic parishes

Taravel Police Station

### Newspapers

Sunset News -- once a week

Progress -- twice a week

Catholic Monitor

Chronicle and Examiner

### Western Addition

For purposes of the class the following area has been designated for closer focus: between Geary and Turk and between Divisadero and Fillmore.

#### A. Demographic Data

About 50% earn less than \$4,000/yr. (these statistics for all of Western Addition.

Unemployment is about 15% for males and 13.5% for females.

About 25% of the population is under 18.

Juvenile crime rate/1000 in 8-18 age group is 76.

About 42% of children under 18 do not live with both parents.

About 23% of the people older than 25 have 7 or less years of education.

Venereal disease rate/1000 is 21.

#### B. Family Structure

Do not consider the following without being critical.



In a typical family, the father may not live with the family. If the father is employed it is with some menial job and he probably changes jobs frequently for that reason. The family, in most cases, is matriarchally dominated. The mother probably works. Juveniles probably spend little time at home. Street-corner society does exist, although to what extent is not known.

C. National and racial characteristics

In 1960 about 60% blacks occupied this area. A Japanese community is non existent.

D. Facilities (in the target area).

1. Housing projects on Scott and Pierce Streets.
2. Midtown apartments are leased and owned by the city. They are for "moderate" income families.
3. Commercial activity and bus route on Filmore.
4. New Park in Area
5. Ben Franklin Junior High School
6. Golden Gate Grammar School
7. Pediatrics hospital
8. Martin Luther King square is to be in area.
9. Entire area is designated an A-2 section for redevelopment by the city.

Target area picked because it is most representative of Western Addition. It has old and new housing, employment problems, problems associated with drugs and liquor, and a mixed age group of people.

Appropriate 1960 Census Tracts:

	J7	J8	J10	
pop. density	65	35	55	(pop./acre); 1968 estimates)
birthrate	.02	.019	.015	(births/pop.); 1968

## C. ECONOMIC STATE

### 1. Public Finance

City of San Francisco finances presents a classic case of economic deterioration, rising tax rates, and faster-rising expenditures. Total expenditures as of June 1969 were \$415,206,258; a figure showing an average annual increase of 12% over the past decade. The 1969 expenditures can be broken down as follows (with average annual increases for the ten year period). (See Table II-6).

Table II-6

#### TOTAL EXPENDITURES FOR THE CITY OF SAN FRANCISCO AS OF JUNE 1969

	1969 Level	Annual Increase 1960-69
OPERATING EXPENSES		
General Government	\$27,735,527	12%
Public Safety	50,015,795	8%
Hospitals	23,267,536	15%
Public Welfare	108,875,922	28%
Schools	94,937,179	12%
Recreation	14,101,167	9%
All other	29,405,099	8%
OTHER EXPENSES		
Bond Redemption and interest	15,015,374	0%
Pensions and Compen- sation	23,483,409	2%
Municipal Railway deficit	17,890,780	26%
Additions to Capital	10,163,719	7%
All other	314,751	-10%

Most of the increases could not be easily avoided. Public welfare eligibility and rates are set by state and federal regulation. Rising school costs were primarily due to rising enrollments. To maintain a level of expenditures would have meant a decided decrease in per student service. Also municipal employees wage rates have had to increase to be competitive with the private sector.

Over the same ten year period, revenues have managed to grow in proportion to expenditures. City-raised revenue showed an average annual increase of 12%, broken down as follows (with the 1969 level given):

Table II-7  
CITY-RAISED REVENUE  
1969

	1969 Level	Annual Increase 1960-69
LOCAL REVENUE		
Property taxes and penalties	\$211,756,815	10%
Retail Purchase and Use tax	23,078,929	4%
Business tax (1969 only)	5,187,182	--
Hotel tax (1962-69)	3,656,066	30%
Other taxes and licenses	1,799,064	7%
Court fines	4,891,776	5%
Departmental Revenues	42,400,946	30%
Interest earned	9,913,452	50%
Other	1,607,216	11%
	<u>\$304,882,376</u>	

In addition to own revenues (those locally raised), the city of San Francisco had access to state-shared revenues and federal and state grants-in-aid. The amounts are as follows:

Table II-8

STATE-SHARED REVENUES AND  
FEDERAL AND STATE GRANTS-IN-AID

	1969 Level	Annual Increase 1960-69
STATE-SHARED REVENUES		
Motor Vehicle Fuel Tax	\$8,969,090	10%
Motor Vehicle License fees	8,914,897	1%
Alcoholic Beverage License subsidy	1,140,735	--
Cigarette tax (1968-69)	4,128,595	47%
FEDERAL AND STATE GRANTS-IN-AID		
Welfare	\$64,217,658	24%
Education	24,074,070	4%
Health	4,374,082	11%
Other	1,459,452	32%

While revenues have kept pace with expenditures in the past, these sources seem to be reaching a point of diminishing returns while expenditures appear to be growing exponentially. (See Fig. II-22). Property taxes provide approximately 50% of own revenues. This percentage has been decreasing over the years because this tax has not kept up with general economic growth. (See Fig. II-23). Almost all of the increase in revenue from property taxes in recent



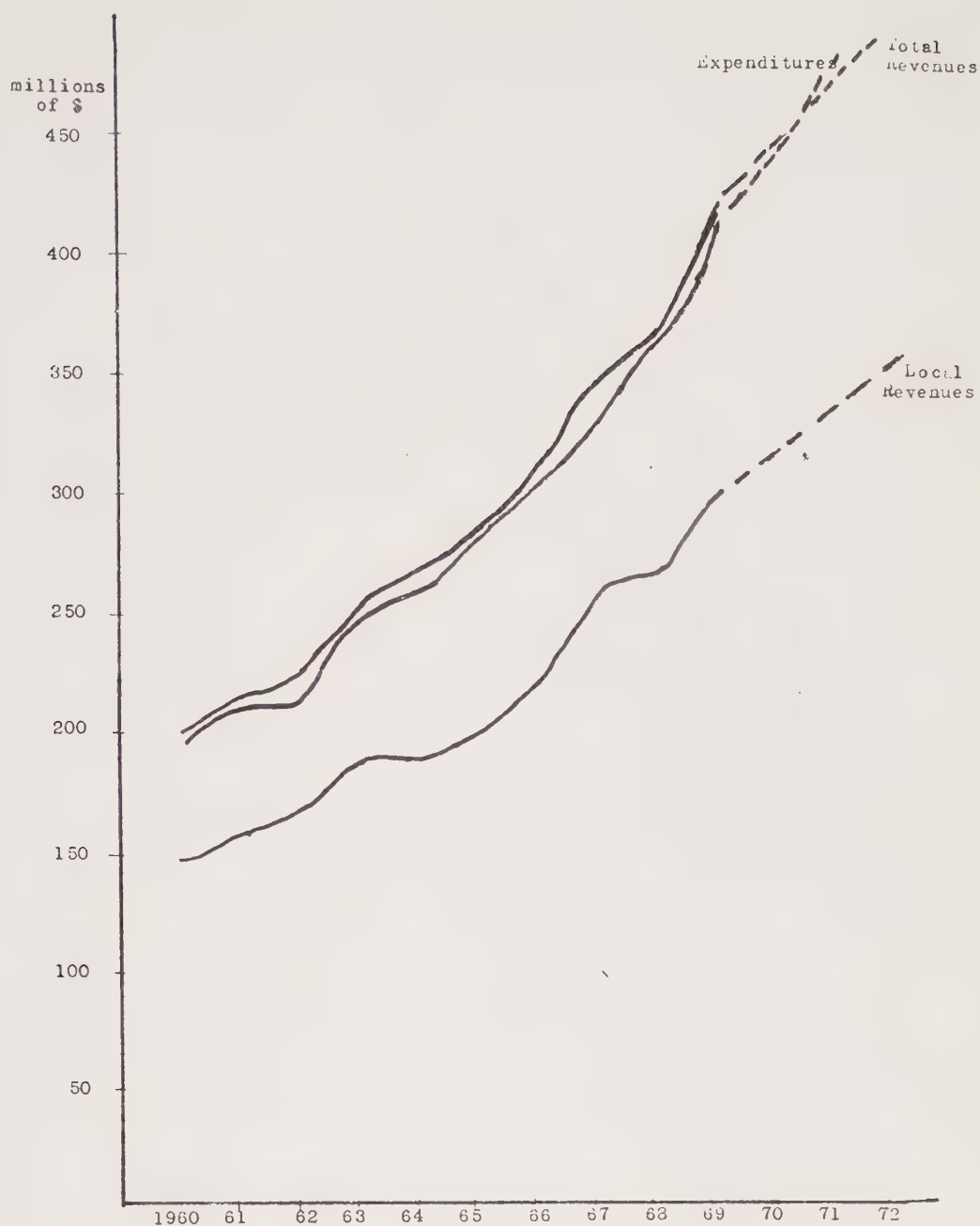


Figure II-22. TREND OF SAN FRANCISCO  
REVENUES AND EXPENDITURES

Source: Data used from Annual Report of the Controller, and National Income and Product Accounts, Office of Business Economics, Department of Commerce.

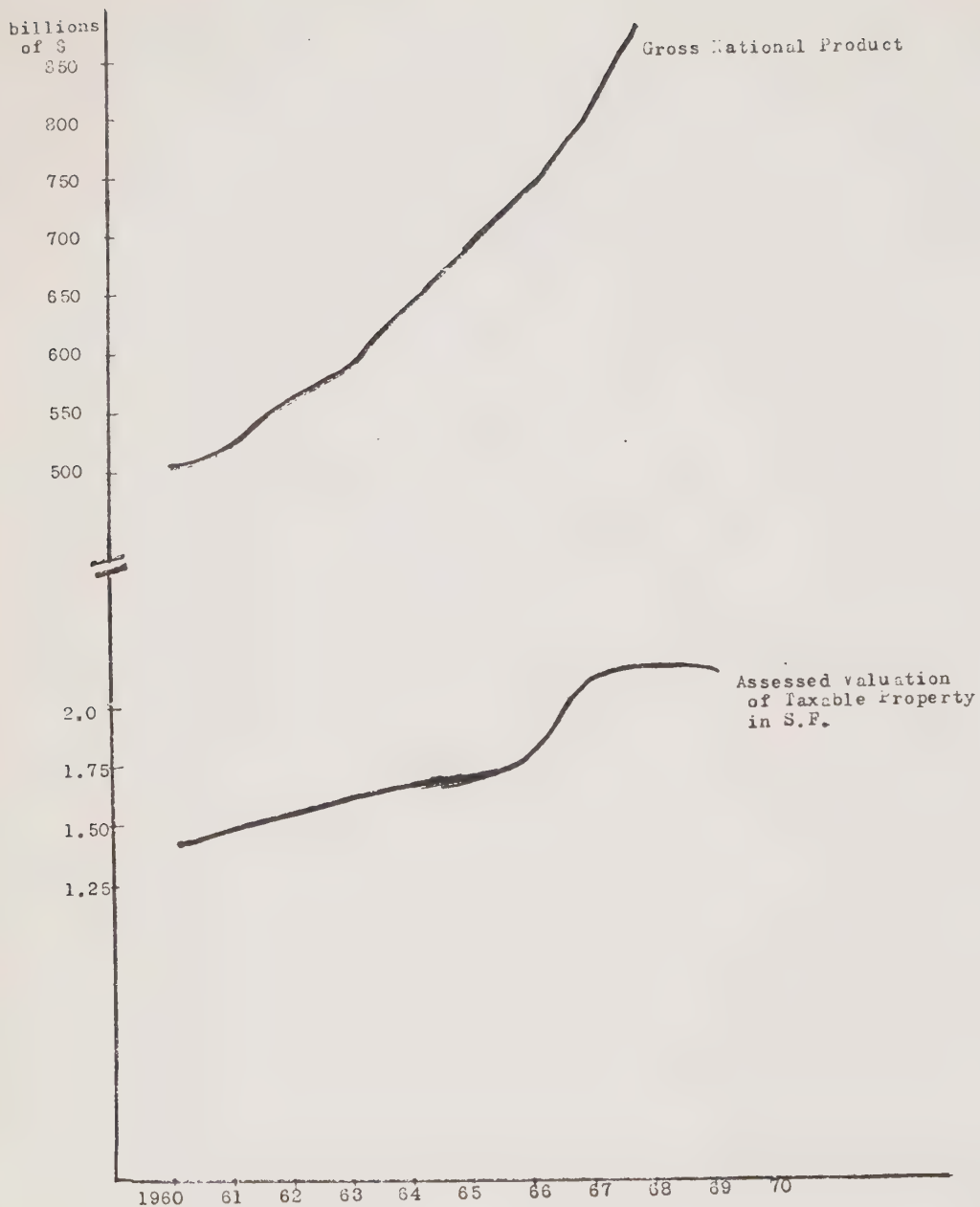


Figure II-23. TAXES LAG BEHIND ECONOMIC GROWTH

Source: Data used from Annual Report of the Controller, and National Income and Product Accounts, Office of Business Economics, Department of Commerce.

years has been the result of rate increases, not increases in the assessed value of property and improvements taxed. Assessed value is designated by state law as 25% of the market value of the property and its improvements. The assessment is made by the assessor's office, and it is determined by the sale price of comparable property (location dwelling, etc.).

A greater use of municipal bonds has been suggested by many casual observers. But this source of funds is very restricted by regulations surrounding its use. At present, the limit on municipal debt is set by both city charter and state law. The city charter limit is set at 12% of the assessed value of property subject to taxation. (The State limit would be 15%.) Certain types of bonds are exempt from the 12% limit (See Table II-9). In addition, the school district can issue bonds up to 15% of assessed valuation because it maintains a junior college. (It has not issued any.) At this time, however, it is not the debt ceiling which is the problem. The maximum rate of interest seems to be the bottleneck. State law sets the limit at 6% (there is a constitutional amendment being contemplated to raise it to 7%). In a tight bond market, even the fact that municipal bonds are exempt from federal taxation does not make them an attractive enough asset to clear the market. As a result, the city had \$177 million in unsold bonds as of June, 1969. An additional consideration in the use of bonds is revenue for redemption and interest. Even if the interest rate limit is raised, the bonds must be paid off through the same taxes that will soon be unable to meet other claims on them.

Current federal and state funds are not going to fill the gap. At present, state-shared revenues from motor vehicle fuel tax are restricted to use on highways and roads. (Legislation to divert it to use for mass transit

Table II-9  
PROPERTY TAX RATES

	Subtotal*	BART	Grand Total
1960-61	8.463	.017	8.480
1961-62	8.29	.02	8.310
1962-63	9.386	.004	9.390
1963-64	8.736	.084	8.820
1964-65	9.060	.170	9.230
1965-66	9.860	.308	10.168
1966-67	10.193	.417	10.610
1967-68	8.446	.354	9.800
1968-69	9.732	.498	10.230
1969-70	11.685	.605	12.290

\* Rate per \$100 valuation. Includes general funds, schools, Municipal Railway deficit, Bay Area Air Pollution Control District, and all other facilities.

Table II-10  
BONDING CAPACITY OF THE CITY \*\*

June 30, 1969		
Maximum limit		
12% of \$2,251,547,600		\$270,185,712
Total issued	318,224,000	
Exempt from ***		
12% limit	160,044,000	
		158,180,000
Limit to Future Bond Issues (Subject to 12% limit)		\$112,005,712

\*\* Excludes the bonding capacity of the school district. Can issue up to 15% of assessed valuation because of the existence of a junior college in the district.

\*\*\* Exemptions include bonds for (a) water supply, shortage, distribution, (b) public improvements that can be assessed against private property benefitted thereby. (None issued), (c) debt for acquisition, construction and improvement of harbor.



was recently defeated). The grants-in-aid from state and federal government sources are issued by program and are restricted to use in that function (Aid to Families with Dependent Children, Manpower Programs, etc.). Most of the federal funds are passed through the state. Due to the fact that San Francisco's population is a small percentage of the state's (even though it has a large percentage of the problems), it has little weight in the legislature. Therefore, a big swing toward aid to the city does not seem too likely. Nor is a major influx of direct federal money likely.

The 1970 Economic Report of the President provides an interesting projection of the nation's economic resources and the demands on those resources through 1975. By 1975, this study projects increased state and local expenditures of \$30 billion. These projections assume full employment, a substantial pull-back from Vietnam, existing Federal tax rates, and existing patterns of private consumption and investment. San Francisco's share of the \$30 billion would be approximately \$100 million. (This includes \$30 million in new programs.) Substantial increases above the \$100 million would require either higher federal taxes or a major redistribution of Federal expenditures. We make two observations on this: 1) Congress has just reduced tax rates which will reduce revenues collected by 1975 by the amount of \$4 billion. 2) A major redistribution of federal expenditures with constant taxes has never taken place. Congress will be more likely to reduce taxes than to increase expenditures as the Vietnam war tails off and the chance of their shifting part of the funds from existing programs to aid for the cities is practically nil.

#### Future Directions

From the evidence presented above it can be seen that San Francisco can not continue with its traditional revenue-raising process. If it does, there will have to be a

drastic cut in services or there will be a fast approach to fiscal ruin. In order for the city to remain viable, neither alternative is possible. Therefore, the city government will have to find and institute new modes of financing public expenditures. (Figures II-24 and II-25 give a breakdown of City expenditures and sources of revenue).

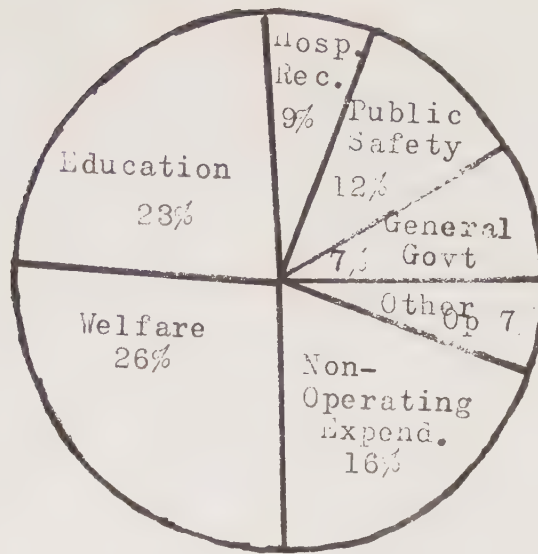


Figure II-24. BREAKDOWN OF 1969 CITY EXPENDITURES

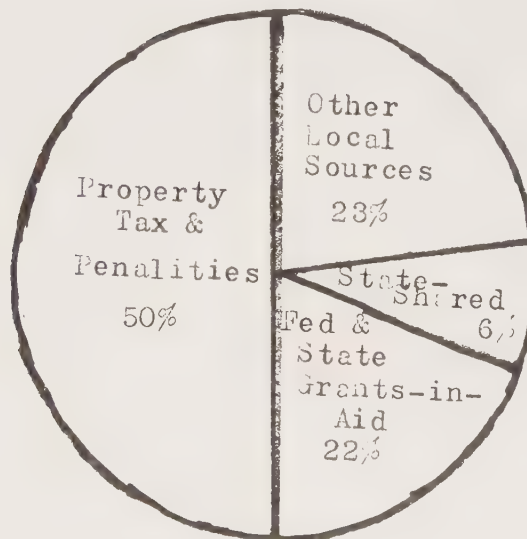


Figure II-25. SOURCES OF REVENUE FOR 1969 EXPENDITURES

Source: Annual Report of the Controller of the City and County of San Francisco. For fiscal year ended June 30, 1969.

## 2. Employment

### Recent Trends In the San Francisco Labor Market

Total Employment - Civilian employment in San Francisco passed the half million mark in 1966 and currently stands at an estimated 535,000. Employment in the City has experienced moderate gains during the last decade but the rate of growth has been significantly slower than the Bay Area as a whole. The steady decline of two industry groups -- manufacturing, and whole sale trade -- which account for a loss of over 13,000 jobs since 1958, has served to offset the 37% growth in the finance industry.

Unemployment and Subemployment\* - San Francisco's economic expansion has not had strong impact in the City's poverty areas where unemployment may be as severe as it was a decade ago. The official rate of unemployment ranged between 3.9 and 5.8% during the sixties and the current figure is approaching 5%. It is noteworthy that the unemployment rate among San Francisco residents is normally higher than rates in other parts of the Bay Area, because the method used to determine unemployment figures does not consider many forms of "de facto" unemployment. A 1966 employment survey conducted in the heart of the Western Addition and the Mission District found unemployment at 11% of the labor force. Whichever rate is employed, it is clear that between 25,000 and 50,000 people are currently without employment in the City. The unemployment figures also do not reflect the degree of "subemployment" in the labor force. The subemployed include those normally counted as unemployed plus those who have given up looking for work those working for poverty-level wages, or those who are working part-time but seeking full-time employment. The 1968 survey referred to above found subemployment to be about 25% of the labor force.

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\* Appendix II-E is an Unemployment Model Developed for Urban Resource Development.



It should be noted, however, that neither the official figures nor the special-purpose surveys consider the impact of illegal activities on the economy of the community. Crude estimates suggest that such activities as prostitution, drugs, gambling, and thievery provide significant economic support to the high unemployment areas of the City.

Manpower Supply - San Francisco, like most major cities, has an abundance of residents seeking work in low and unskilled jobs. An increasing proportion of the labor force is under 25 years of age (16% in 1960, 23% in 1970). Many of the city's younger residents have limited work experience and find themselves beset by numerous problems when seeking employment. These include: limited education, language barriers, discriminatory practices against Blacks and other ethnic groups, physical and social problems, and rigid job structure.

The over-25 workers have generally moved to the suburbs outside San Francisco but have returned to their jobs in the city. This segment of the labor force is largely white and constitutes a major portion of the skilled, managerial, and professional positions in the city. The number of commuters into San Francisco has increased sharply in the past decade and currently exceeds 40% of the labor force. The number commuting out of the city to jobs in the Bay Area is about 40,000, a small figure compared to the 225,000 entering the city each day.

Employment Opportunities - Although the total employment of San Francisco has risen from 472,000 in 1959 to 535,000 in 1969, the structure of the job market has undergone significant changes. Commercial employment has increased by 30% in the past decade and currently comprises almost 50% of the labor force. Financial activities, which include banking, real estate, and insurance have witnessed the most rapid growth and have served to strengthen the City's reliance

on white-collar professional, managerial, and clerical employment. Business services such as advertising and publishing have kept pace with the finance industry, but these professions have not provided significant job opportunities for the less-skilled worker. Retail trade which services the resident population has remained relatively stable because of the decline in the city's population. Tourism-related activities have risen sharply but again these positions cannot be easily filled by those currently unemployed.

Industrial employment has declined steadily since the end of World War II. The city lost 16,500 industrial jobs from 1953 to 1966 while at the same time industrial employment in the Bay Area rose by 53,000. Despite this decline San Francisco industry, which includes manufacturing, wholesale trade, trucking and warehousing, and water-transportation, employs about 115,000 persons -- approximately 21% of the total labor force. The reasons underlying the shifts in the labor structure are similar to the reasons for the changes in most case cities. Industry, particularly manufacturing, is hampered by antiquated port facilities (and strong competition from modern East Bay ports), less direct and more congested transportation facilities, shortage of physical space, and the high cost of land relative to other Bay Area sites. It is notable that according to a 1967 Chamber of Commerce survey only two firms employing more than one hundred employees began to operate in the City since 1950. No firm of this size has entered in the sixties. Although the survey of industries is not complete, the available figures indicate that extremely few jobs for semi- and unskilled workers have become available in the sixties. The net shift in mobs reflects a sharp decline in position for these types of workers. Over 75% of the manufacturing jobs are classified as administration and auxiliary, food and kindred products, printing and publishing, apparel,

and fabricated metal production. These jobs generally require greater sophistication and skill and therefore have not provided significant opportunities for young, untrained individuals.

In summary, the indigenous unemployed labor supply currently does not provide the skills demanded by the City's employers. Industrial leaders contend that they must have greater numbers of skilled and managerial employees before they can hire the less skilled. The skilled workers are found outside the city but the shifting job market makes it increasingly difficult for the less-skilled individual to find meaningful employment within the city.

#### A Five Year Projection of Employment Trends

Total Employment - The overall employment of San Francisco will be strongly affected by the de-escalation in Vietnam, the national economy, and the extent of priority shifts toward "quality of life" activities (pollution control, reguilding the ghettos, etc.). Assuming that the war effort will decline steadily, that the economy will maintain a moderate growth, and that the emphasis toward the nation's domestic problems will be expanded moderately, the employment level of the city should continue the mild growth pattern exhibited over the past decade. War-related jobs will dampen the expansion but the centralization of financial activities in the Central Business District will overshadow these declines.

Manpower Supply - The explosive growth in the numbers of young people desiring to enter the labor force during the sixties will begin to subside over the next five years. The numbers will continue to rise but the relative increase will be minimal. The problems facing the 15 to 25 year old group show no signs of subsiding, however. The potential workers will be increasingly non-white, possess little more education and job skills, and suffer from perhaps even more

severe physical, social, and psychological problems than today's youth. The established work force will continue its exit to the suburbs as soon as the financial means are available. The deterioration of the City and the increased accessibility to the City because of BART will hasten this trend.

Employment Opportunities - There is little evidence to suggest that present trends of commerce and industry will shift significantly over the next years. The financial and business services will continue to centralize in the downtown area and will create job opportunities for large numbers of technical, clerical, managerial, and professional employees. These people will be drawn largely from areas outside the city but greater emphasis will be placed on hiring younger, less skilled workers from the city and training them on-the-job for technical, clerical, and other white-collar positions. These activities must be coordinated closely with the education system and government training programs.

The industrial sector should remain steady during the next five years as several industrial tracts are developed in the southern region of the city. Other plants in the South of Market area will probably relocate outside the city but the total impact on jobs should not be significant. This static condition in the only industries open to less-skilled workers suggests that greater numbers will have to commute outside the city to find jobs. Although unemployment levels are almost as high in the East Bay and South of San Francisco areas, the only possible job opportunities will be in these areas, not in San Francisco. The City resident will be at a disadvantage by having to commute but no other alternative appears feasible at the present time. Unless the conditions are altered drastically to stimulate industrial development in San Francisco, it is highly doubtful that business of its own volition will return to the City.



## Some General Problem Areas in the Labor Situation of Sunnydale

The potential labor force in Sunnydale presently is divided into two major sectors. First, there is a number of young men in their late teens and early twenties, many of whom are high school dropouts, and the majority of whom are untrained and inexperienced. Due to the lack of unskilled jobs, training opportunities or other means of gaining employment in the immediate Sunnydale area, these men migrate elsewhere in search of jobs.

The second major sector of the unemployed labor force consists of middle-aged mothers acting as head of household in the 75% of families in the area who are on welfare. Some of the women in this position are seeking or already have jobs. Many are eligible for semi-skilled work as secretaries, or vocational nurses. A problem faced by most is how to care for the children and work at the same time.

A few fathers in residence who have jobs are unskilled and work as janitors, bus drivers, airport workers or in similar occupations.

There are few jobs available to residents in the Sunnydale area. The major commercial interest in the area consists of small stores and businesses with limited employment quotas. There is no major industrial park close by, and the one factory near by, Schlage Lock Works, has very limited demand for unskilled workers. There is presently one small housing construction project in the area, but because of union and skill requirements, the contractors are relying mainly on workers from outside of Sunnydale.

Job placement services, such as the South East Poverty Commission on, EOC, etc., have had limited success in the past. Many rely upon community service openings (playground supervisor, etc.) and government supported activities for jobs. However, federal employment (Post Office worker,

census taker) offers very limited possibilities, and even when openings do occur, many of the applicants are turned away because of poor performance on the Civil Service Exam.

The Neighborhood Youth Corps has been a standby for employment of youth, especially during the summer. These jobs are limited, however. This year, out of 1663 N.Y.C. jobs in San Francisco, only 676 will be open to youth in the Southeast Poverty Area (Hunter's Point, Sunnydale, etc.). Often in the past these jobs have gone unfilled because of administrative mistakes.

Jobs in the larger communities near Sunnydale are also becoming very scarce. For example, the shipyards, once a source of unskilled and semi-skilled employment opportunities, have been plagued by extensive layoffs recently.

One barrier to employment faced by Sunnydale residents is union membership. This problem has three different facets; lack of skill in the potential workers, racial and other forms of discrimination by the unions, and the problems of lack of seniority in the unions faced by new members. Often the unemployed young man in Sunnydale lacks the training required to get a job or belong to the union, and is thus denied access in two ways. He is not only unemployed, but also has no strong organization to help him gain the skills needed and the job he desires. The aspect of discrimination on the other hand denies a man employment where union membership is required even though he may be eminently qualified for the job he is seeking. The problem faced by the new member of a union is that he is most likely to be laid off early because of his lack of seniority in the union. Thus, union membership is often viewed by the unemployed in Sunnydale as a barrier rather than an aid to employment.

Transportation to and from work or potential job areas and Sunnydale does not seem to be an overwhelming problem.

There is a regular bus route north into the central San Francisco area. Transportation to the southern peninsula is less adequate, however. If there were major unskilled job openings in the south, then low cost transportation there could become a major factor in the Sunnydale job outlook.

Within Sunnydale there are minor problems for those without cars, notably the lack of adequate transportation to Adult Education classes and to and from supermarkets and other businesses and the low income housing areas. This lack could be a factor in tending to keep welfare mothers from seeking jobs and other adults from increasing their education.

#### Some Projections for the Near Future of the Labor Problem in Sunnydale

Present population change statistics provided by the housing office indicate a turnover rate of about 2% per month in the low-income housing area. The trend seems to be toward an overall influx of Blacks by a ratio of two to one. This may lead to the eventual formation of an all Black ghetto. One labor problem associated with this is union discrimination.

The incidence of families on welfare (75%) will probably remain high as will the incidence of fatherless homes. These two related tendencies are due to the restrictions on payment of welfare to families with an able-bodied adult male in residence, and the existence in the area of subsidized housing for welfare recipients. Thus, those families moving into the area will tend to be fatherless and on welfare. There will remain, therefore, a large potential labor force of middle-aged mothers. Child care centers and training for secretarial, nursing, or related types of employment will be needed if this force is to be employed.

There is a tendency for the young men in their late teens to seek jobs outside of Sunnydale and to move out of the

area once they are employed. The lack of job opportunities in the immediate area is also in part responsible for the great number of fatherless homes. Since there does not seem to be much possibility of the opening of large-scale employment opportunities in the area, the drain of unskilled, but employable males from the area will probably continue.

To establish a successful enterprise which will employ Sunnydale residents, there must be some outside sources willing to donate capital and managerial skills. A step in this direction is the planned establishment of a co-op for the area residents. Though such a business will not provide employment for large numbers of residents, it is hoped that it will provide training in management for a few, and will, if successful, encourage other such ventures.

#### Possible Long Range Implementations and Their Implications

One proposed training program would involve students from colleges in the San Francisco peninsula area. It is envisioned that these students could gain valuable training experience while providing organizational and teaching abilities badly needed in any job training program. The students could earn credits toward their degrees as appropriate. Much of the energy now devoted to other causes could be well spent in a program of this type. Secretarial and bookkeeping skills would be ideally suited to this program.

Another much broader program could provide jobs as well as training. This program is envisioned as a type of universal mandatory civic service. A program of this sort would encompass many of the goals of such organizations as the Peace Corps, Vista, and others. In it, each person would be required to dedicate perhaps one year of his life to some sort of civic service. For this he would be paid, trained if necessary and by all means would be allowed credit for his work in the program so that it would not be considered



as lost time. Positions provided by this program could vary widely to fit the needs and talents of the individual and would provide much needed services to the community. The program would be both locally and nationally administered to provide a broad range of opportunities and services. It is envisioned as a government subsidized program that, unlike welfare, provides some social service in return for the funds invested in it.

The implications of the above mentioned programs and the envisioned improvements in transportation, child care, housing, and other problems in the Sunnydale area may lead to drastic changes. The high incidence of fatherless families on welfare in the area is due to conditions there which promote this type of society. If conditions in the area are changed without regard for upgrading the remainder of the city, then a new area similar to Sunnydale may form elsewhere. Thus, heavy industrialization or the formation of a business district near Sunnydale may well tend to shift the basic problem of the area (lack of good paying jobs within the skill level of the residents) elsewhere. Therefore a major area of focus for this community must be in training personnel for those jobs that exist and in the formation of jobs suited to the abilities of the residents.

#### Western Addition

Five Year Projection: For planning purposes, it would be safe to extend the findings of the employment survey taken by the U.S. Department of Labor in November, 1966. That survey showed, for the Filmore-Mission District where 47,290 persons lived, unemployment was 11% and sub-employment was a startling 25%. The imbalance between skills in the slums and the demand for these skills will most probably continue. The Table below shows occupations last held by the unemployed in the Filmore-Mission District in the survey, and the

demand for those skills.

Table II-11  
OCCUPATIONS LAST HELD BY THE UNEMPLOYED IN THE  
FILMORE-MISSION DISTRICT

Occupation	Employer Demand	Unemployed Experience
Total	100.0%	100.0%
White Collar	43.6	19.1
Craftsmen	13.7	9.9
Operatives	9.1	11.2
Laborers	6.5	13.8
Service	27.1	19.7
Farm	0.2	1.3
Never worked	--	14.5
Occupation not reported	0	10.5

It is difficult to get data on a specific sector of the "Western Addition", and the foregoing estimates should be taken as symptomatic evidence of a general slum condition.

Because of Redevelopment in the A-2 Area of the Western Addition, employment in the construction occupations can be expected to increase. This is due to Affirmative Action Programs, as will be explained later. Whether those filling these newly created construction jobs will remain within the Western Addition as residents is questionable. The tendency toward fluidity, i.e., rapid turnover of residents who are unemployed, will probably continue, and therefore should be considered so for planning purposes.

Redevelopment and Affirmative Action Program - Redevelopment in effect buys land "retail", prepares it and sells it

"wholesale" to private developers. The Agency's "equal opportunity policy" is

to take affirmative action to ensure that applicants are employed and that employees are placed, selected for training, trained, upgraded, promoted, demoted, layed off, terminated, rated, compensated, given work and shift assignments, and otherwise treated during employment without regard to race, color, religion, or political creed, age, sex, handicap, or national origin.

The following language appears in the "Information to Bidders" section of nonexempted construction contracts and in the "Information Packets" provided to bidders of renewal project lands:

Ten days after notification by the San Francisco Redevelopment Agency, the (apparent low bidder) (proposed selected redeveloper) will be required to attend an affirmative action compliance conference along with his known principal subcontractors, including but not limited to major items of work such as heating, electrical, plumbing and so forth. This conference is for the purpose of providing details of how its proposed affirmative action compliance program will carry out each of the following nine tasks comprising the San Francisco Operational Plan for ensuring equal employment opportunity in Bay Area Construction....

a. The 50% Employment of Area Residents:

In order to further the purpose of the Redevelopment plan which is to better the community both physically and economically, it is hereby required that 50 percent of the work force used to perform this contract be residents of the Area. The purpose of this provision is to channel certain economic benefits of the Agency's redevelopment activity into the local community where the redevelopment work is being carried out so as to upgrade the residents of the community economically and thereby help to equip them to live within, and maintain their community, once the redevelopment process is completed. For the purpose of recruitment, the following Area is hereby defined as that portion of the City and County bounded....

....To the extent the Contractor is unable (as determined by the Agency) to fulfill the work force composition requirement of this Section of the contract he must hire one resident trainee for each non-resident employee.

The trainee rather than the non-resident will be considered as making up the work force.

b. Affirmative Action Program:

The contractor and each subcontractor shall require their respective subcontractors who have a subcontract to develop a written affirmative action compliance program.... Each contractor's program shall provide in detail for specific steps to guarantee equal employment opportunity keyed to the problems and needs of members of minority groups, including, when and where there are deficiencies, the development of specific goals and time tables for the prompt achievement of full and equal employment opportunity.... The table should provide a SOBIC (Spanish speaking, Oriental, Black, American Indian and Caucasian) profile of existing and projected work force.

c. Racial Quota:

The affirmative action compliance program shall not require any specific racial quota but is intended to contribute to the achievement of a reasonable relationship between the racial composition of the City and County of San Francisco and that of construction work forces.

d. The Actual Case

The 50% minority requirement clause "may be added at the discretion of the Area Director," in Model Neighborhood Project Areas and in other depressed urban renewal project neighborhoods. The recruitment area is often much greater than the specific redevelopment area. The Agency generally requires a 50% composition for its work, i.e., demolition and site preparation. For actual construction done by the developer, 50% is not spelled out. However, it has been requested by the Hunter's Point Community (and granted). Hence it is a visible precedent which has quite often been followed.

The list of minority contractors has grown appreciably in the last several years. Contractors often support each other by using others' services. Joint-ventures are good possibilities for these small minority contractors. Benson Hattem, the Agency's Affirmative Action Officer, uses his



influence to see that all Affirmative Action Programs include minority members. The 50% precedent used by the Agency and requested by Hunter's Point gives him a strong arguing position. Indeed, many contractors do approach 50%.

If a contractor cannot find a minority union member from the locality, he will hire "someone off the street." This is most easily done with laborers, carpenters, and cement masons, as these skills are much in demand in construction and training relatively easy. Or, for example, he may hire a welder from the shipyard if he cannot find one from the union. The contractor then gets the trainee into the union, somehow. The system works on hypocrisy, but it works. The net result is to add minority races to the unions, which is basically what they want anyway.

Williams and Burrows has been cited as particularly responsible in minority employment. They are large enough to be able to rotate their people through different jobs, thereby accustoming them to the "moving" nature of construction work.

e. Critical Deficiencies: The Agency has noted the following trades for their glaring deficiencies in minority membership:

Asbestos Workers; Carpet, Linoleum and Soft Tile Layers; Electricians; Elevator Constructors; Glaziers; Iron Workers; Lathers; Operating Engineers, Plumbers and Pipe Fitters; Sheet Metal Workers; Sprinkler Fitters; Tile Setters and Tile Helpers.

f. Western Addition A-2

Mr. Joseph Hall, Assistant Housing Specialists for the Agency, said that ten new construction starts would begin within the A-2 area this year, probably deliverable within one year. He also stated he expected that A-2 redevelopment would be completed within 3 years. This is probably very optimistic.

g. The Philadelphia Plan and San Francisco

The Philadelphia Plan was put into effect in the Philadelphia area last September by Labor Secretary George P. Shultz under Executive Order 11246. "It requires contractors bidding on federal and federally assisted construction projects costing over \$500,000 to agree to make a good faith effort to assure that a specified percentage of the workers in each of six designated trades will be members of minority groups." For example, the plan states that from 5% to 8% of the plumbers on a job during the calendar year 1970 should be from minority groups and that by 1973 the range should be from 20% to 24%.

There are indications that if San Francisco does not come up with an acceptable version of the Philadelphia Plan, the Federal Government will impose it by itself. The City has until the end of July 1970 to come up with a plan. Such a plan, however, will not affect the Agency, which already operates its Affirmative Action Programs on a much higher basis than the Philadelphia Plan.

#### 20 Year Projection

While the noticeable effect of A-2 development in the Western Addition will be the addition of area minorities to the construction labor force, this alone will not solve the acute sub-employment problems. Unless new industries are included in the San Francisco of 1990, it seems probable that the Western Addition will still contain a high percentage of people who "haven't made it yet."

#### Mission District

Of the 132,100 estimated to be living in the Mission District in 1968, roughly 90% are white (including 18% Spanish-surname), 5% are black, and 5% non-white; 6% are foreign born. Of this number, 60,000 are estimated to be in the labor force in 1970. Unemployment is estimated to be 10%, resulting in

6,000 unemployed in the Mission. The number of teenagers 14-19 is estimated to be 13,000 to 26,000. For an unemployment rate of 35% with 50% in the work force, there are from 2200 to 4400 unemployed teenagers.

Subemployment includes 13% working only part-time and 7% earning less than \$60 per week. In numbers, there are 7,800 in the first category and 4,200 in the second.

The effect of the detrimental employment factors is reflected in 17% (5,300) of the families having incomes less than \$3000 in 1960, and 26% (8000) having an income less than \$4000. A Filmore-Mission section surveyed in 1968 reported a median family income of \$4200 compared with the national average of \$6300.

This same Filmore-Mission survey indicated that 50% or 3000 (if these figures are applied to the Mission as a whole) of the unemployed had not finished high school; less than 20% or 1200 had not completed the eighth grade. In 1960, 63% of the Mission population over 25 had not finished high school and 22% had not finished the eighth grade. The major problem perceived by the unemployed in finding a job was the lack of education and training. Next on the list of problems came health problems, followed by personal problems such as a police record.

Based on the Filmore-Mission survey, 75% (4500) of the unemployed would be willing to take on-the-job training, 50% (3000) would return to school if necessary by preferred on-the-job training, 25% (1500) would live away from home for job training, and 20% (1200) would move to another area to find a job.

In addition to the above statistics, a significant percent of the unemployed teenagers have income from crime such as car theft. The environment of the youth and present social ethics are such that it is quite difficult if not impossible for a teenager to perceive that staying in school or getting a job (that is, making an "honest living") is at

advantageous or desirable.

A number of job training and employment assistance programs in the Mission represent hopeful signs but are not perceived as having a significant impact in relation to the unemployment problem.

#### Five-year projection

The combined factors of continuing immigration, the departure of low-skill industries from San Francisco, and the educational and social problems of the Mission indicate constant if not steadily growing unemployment. The present job-training and employment programs, plus modest extensions of them, are to be viewed qualitatively as not being able to influence the trends within a period of five years. This will be due primarily to a continuing influx of untrained and uneducated people to the labor force. The influx will consist of high school dropouts and immigrants to the Bay Area plus workers with outmoded skills. The social conditions of poverty and racial discrimination and cultural barriers which cause this influx are expected to show little change during this period. The social conditions appear to be a constant in the system of national priorities--that is, subject to only token attention. As a result, bandaide programs treating the symptom of unemployment are expected to continue their present course of insignificant success and failure.



## D. HOUSING STATE

### 1. Housing Production

Introduction During the Winter of 1970, one of the San Francisco dailys published a cartoon depicting a museum that showed an animal known as the "Brontosaurus" which had outlived its usefulness as a result of the process of evolution. In the background of the skeletal remains of the Brontosaurus was the skeleton of several "stick" constructed houses which had apparently outlived their usefulness as well. The identifying sign of these skeletons read "U.S. Housing Construction-1470 A.D.".

The message is crystal clear, namely that the traditional methods of producing housing, like the huge mammals that once inhabited the earth, have simply outlived their usefulness, and evolution has taken its toll. The message is clear that these methods will very shortly be only an item of historical interest for future generations.

Realizing the nature of the constraints on traditional building methods, the housing industry has been turning more and more to the factory and production-line techniques used in other segments of the American economy, to produce industrialized building systems. Many such systems can be assembled or erected on the site in a matter of days; some in hours - providing, almost literally, "instant space".

Certainly, instant solutions for long-standing problems of land cost, a major factor in providing housing, social acceptability, financing-cannot be solved by just devising more innovative alternatives to traditional stick-built housing. The effort must involve a joint-venture between government and the private sector-the financial institutions, sponsor groups, architects, contractors, planners, sociologists, homebuilders, developers, manufacturers, and the public itself.

But the technology of producing instant space is, at

least, enabling the housing industry to take the first tentative steps toward meeting the need for a decent home and a suitable living environment for every family.

#### 1. Traditional Methods

Even though the housing industry in the United States is one of the largest productive enterprises of the modern world, it has been relatively slow in taking full advantage of the technological progress of its time. Most of the tract housing built utilizes timber as structural members. Yet, timber frame construction, which is very much common place now, was only made possible by a series of innovations introduced over a period of nearly 200 years. It was in 1970 that the first patent for cutting and boarding nails was granted. The balloon frame method of construction is claimed to have been first applied in 1833! In more recent years, progress has been achieved in the techniques of forest conservation and rotation, in thinning, felling and the transportation of lumber, and in cutting and seasoning of timber. Processes for quick seasoning by water, steam, and chemical treatment have allowed expanded production and a better product. Today, timber is now used in new forms besides the traditionally known boards, patterns, joists, and beams. The perfection of new kinds of glues and rosins and the use of hydraulic or power presses have allowed the production of plywoods, of hard boards made of wood pulp, of composition boards and sandwich panels. They have developed the techniques of dry construction in timber with resulting economy in time of erection.

But by watching the nature of the process by which a house or an apartment is put together, it becomes apparent that even the best accomplishments of traditional building methods in programming, planning, management, construction, etc. are clearly far from optimal. One sees workers scurrying up and down expensive scaffolding. They may be cutting

and fitting as many as 5,000 or 6,000 different pieces for a single house or apartment unit, and more if one counts nails and floor tiles. Most of these pieces and parts are, of course, made in a factory. But most of them are not made to fit together. They are not standardized.

There is not one but three walls-the exterior, the insulation, and the interior finish. When the three walls have been put together, someone has to put holes into them again to install the heating ducts. And someone also has to put in more cuts and holes in order to put in the electric wiring and outlets. Nor is there just one window. There are usually only parts-the wood or metal sashes, the glass and the hardware, that are put together in the confusion of on-site construction. If it rains too hard, those, like other parts, can't be put together until the weather clears up. And then, of course, someone else must come and paint it.

The craftsman who put all the pieces together use mostly hand tools and are highly specialized. They won't touch each others work, which means that they have to wait for each other to finish and a lot of them are idle for a good part of the time. Much of the non-timber material used to put the building together-the concrete, mortar, glues, adhesives, and paint-is wet. They have to be mixed, cured or shaken in all kinds of weather. There is always someone waiting around until they dry. On the average traditional housing construction job, labor is used to an average 60% of capacity.

Recently, traditional builders have been frantically searching for cost reduction techniques wherever possible. Foundations have been reduced to bare minima. The thickness and quality of materials used in partitions and exterior walls has been reduced. But even in the lowest priced units, the price is too high for the low and moderate income group to

pay. Yet in these dwelling units, the cheapest lines of hardware and appliances are used. Sound and heat insulation have been skipped or greatly reduced. In short, the traditional housing industry has reached the point of diminishing returns. Any further cost reduction is impossible in the traditionally-built unit without curtailing the amenities- and traditional builders have also tried doing just that.

The earliest curtailments that were applied were in the dimensions of rooms and in the quality of construction. To prevent any further curtailment of housing quality, codes and standards required by landing and sponsoring agencies began to cover each and every aspect of housing design and construction. These were mostly based upon standard good practice at the time of their formation, but today are often termed arbitrary and perpetuating of the status quo. In this sense, they are inimical to innovation.

As previously pointed out, the traditional housing industry is an industry in transition, however slow. But faced with the competition of industrialized housing and the predictions that up to 75% of all housing built by 1980 will be industrialized to some extent, the progressive traditional builders are evolving to a type of construction best referred to as rationalized traditional methods.

#### ii. Rationalized Traditional Methods

Rationalized traditional methods, while relying mainly on the traditional skilled building trades, incorporates various industrialized techniques, such as on-site mechanization, improved work-site organization and the use of some prefabricated elements. Rationalized traditional construction is an obvious transitional step in an industry that is being revolutionized from traditional to industrialized construction. It tries to achieve the best of both methods, but usually is a hit-and-miss application of true systems building. It does have three basic advantages over



traditional "stick building"-quality, speed, and savings.

One of the principal sources of these advantages is precisely the fact that the rationalized builder is typically a large-scale housing builder and, thus, deals with mass-production. He can secure lower prices by mass-purchasing, he can receive better bids from sub-contractors who are assured of a steady production, and he can achieve better scheduling, considerably reducing idle labor at any time. Standardization of design elements and jig-assembly of parts can reduce the cost of, the time for, and the quality of assembly.

For example, the use of precut lumber by rationalized builders has all the inherent advantages of true industrialized building, yet it is easily, and commonly, applicable to traditional construction. Precut lumber means just what the term implies. In a central preparation area-call it a "factory" if you wish-an assembly line crew cuts to size, in advance, all the lumber the unit will require. Other workers number the pieces, organize them into neat bundles and deliver them to the site, complete with instructions for assembly. From then on, it's just like putting a puzzle together. But unlike puzzle buffs, the workman at the site knows exactly where each piece is-and exactly where each piece goes. Assembly time drops by as much as two-thirds, labor costs are cut and efficiency is improved. Also, since all pieces are cut to size at the factory, there are no odds and ends at the site that go to waste, and less at the factory than if cut piecemeal on-site. What's more, because the lumber must move down an assembly line, there is less chance of defective pieces reaching the site. Thus, quality is also improved.

Other common examples of rationalized traditional housing construction include the use of pre-hung doors and windows, PVC pipe, unitized bathtubs, tilt-up concrete panel

walls, and lift-slab concrete floor and roof slabs.

Assembly lines, mass production and division of labor, which are old hat to most industries, are finally being applied in the traditional housing industry. While many builders will apply these, and other rationalized traditional methods, and do quite well in producing a quality product at lower costs, the immediate housing needs require greater volume, lower costs, and more radical innovations than rationalized traditional construction alone can provide. For the most part, it must be viewed as a transition between true traditional methods and the goal of a multi-discipline, systems approach to industrially produced housing methods.

### iii. Mobile Home Construction

Introduction A mobile home is a movable or portable dwelling unit constructed to be towed on its own chassis, connected to utilities and designed with a permanent foundation for year-round living. It can consist of one or more units that can be folded, collapsed, or telescoped when towed and expanded later for additional cubic capacity; or of two or more units, separately towable but designed to be joined into one integral unit, capable of being again separated into the components for repeated towing. Mobile homes are currently produced as 12 foot wide singles or as doubles of either 20 or 24 ft. widths. A recent phenomenon, the 14 ft. wide single has already been introduced in the majority of the midwestern states; it allows a greater variety of interior floor plans in both 14 ft. wide singles and 26 or 28 ft. wide doubles. The highway length limitation is typically 60 ft., with a height limitation of approximately 13.5 ft. The current most popular size of mobile home is 60 ft. by 12 ft. by 10 ft., or 720 square ft. of area.

#### a. Exterior

Mobile home manufacturers are becoming more

conscious of the fact that the exterior design of the mobile home in many cases still leaves much to be desired. The unit has been a product that really has no care for its environment. It doesn't mold to the surroundings, it has no warmth, no texture. But the results of new materials and technology will surely be seen in this regard within the next few years. Already some with sidings of oak, pine, or pecky cypress, and with gabled or mansard roofs are being marketed. The reason for the typical low pitched roof (maximum of 3 ft. by 12 ft.) is the highway maximum pitch roof and 2.5 ft. for wheels and clearance). More often today, and in the future, roofs are being moved into place at the site to provide a higher pitch. Trim features, such as roof overhang are generally hinged or site applied to overcome problems related to width limitations.

It is difficult to provide a variety of exterior elevations for mobile homes and maintain reasonable or competitive costs. However, most factories provide extra cost options such as porch attachments, bay windows, and carports or garages to relieve the regularity of the box shaped structures.

b. Materials

The materials used to produce a mobile home are not similar to the materials used in the traditional house. The skins on the outer and inner walls move to the touch of the hand. The roof usually is not strong enough to walk on. The windows are smaller and applied to the outside of the wall. Only the floor would be comparable to a traditionally built house. The reason for this is in the use of cheaper materials. Cheaper in the respect that thinner panels of conventional materials usually used with less stable connections. However, there is nothing inherently unsafe or defective with this type of construction; and it is one major reason why mobile home prices are much lower than traditionally

built units of similar size and style. Conventional material use, it is claimed, assures good consumer acceptance of the end product. Conventional materials in the mobile home industry are generally considered to be metal exteriors and thin wood panel interiors on 2 inch by 4 inch stud walls.

c. Production

Production of mobile homes as currently practiced in the United States, makes minimal use of automated systems even though production takes place in a factory. There has been little effort directed in the past toward the development of new production equipment or the use of new, improved materials. The emerging involvement of large corporate structures in the industry, however, should help alter this situation.

Most existing production processes do make use of jigs, component cutters, automatic nailing devices, and the like. Framing materials are generally ordered pre-cut or a few facilities operate their own component cutters. Jigs are used for forming the roof structure, interior, and exterior wall panels and floor joist system. In most efficient operations fabrication benches and assembly stations are laid out along a production line with the fabrication benches being positioned around their respective assembly stations. The assembly process begins with the rigid steel floor joist which are used to maintain the necessary tolerances to correctly fit the foundations and to maintain structural integrity as it doubles as the highway transportation chassis. Each station is responsible for adding selected components to the structure. The assembly tasks are repetitive and typically require few special skills. The plumbing, heating, and wiring tasks are most often completed under the direct supervision of a master craftsman. Some companies subcontract the higher skill requirements of such tasks as plumbing, electrical tape, texturing, and painting.



#### iv. Alternative Uses

With the predicted increase in mobile home production this decade and the expected diversity of mobile home manufacturers, there is no doubt that mobile units offer serious alternatives for traditional building of housing. Obviously, the mobile home is not the one single answer to meet the challenge of the lower cost housing need, but it is one of several. So far, they have been used single-storied at fairly low density in mobile home parks or alone on otherwise unused land. Mainly for this reason, their applicability to inner city locations where land is expensive has not been feasible, except when used as temporary housing during urban renewal or similar projects. In these instances, the mobile home has served aimeably. But in the past few years, the architectural journals have included dozens of proposals made in which mobile home type units are utilized in patterns allowing high densities to be achieved along with well planned land-use techniques. Most of the patterns developed recognize the fact that mobile homes are mobile no more, and capitalize on the compactness that the resulting volumetric module achieves. Some proposals refer to the units as "stabiles" others as the "new building block", or some other such designation meant to convey the idea that the fininshed housing can be built up with, or inserted in, frames as other building blocks to form multi-storied super-structures.

The simplest patterns place a box (a mobile home) on the ground, and stack other boxes on top of it, utilizing the strengths of the walls of the box. This usually allows for two stories of height without additional structural reinforcement, though some proposals do suggest reinforcing the walls of the units with a structural steel frame designed to allow for stacking up to four stories in height. When such stacking up does take place, these are of course, the

consideration of utility connections for which space must be provided between the units. Vertical circulation towers are proposed in some examples, joined by single or double loaded corridors leading to the individual units.

To relieve the drawback of monotonous, irritating, and undesirable identical stacking and packing, some proposals suggest pinwheel arrangements of the boxes, each unit forming in part a terrace for the unit above it, similar in concept to Habitat in Montreal.

#### v. Conclusion

Flexibility in land-use, financing, and taxation give mobile homes their unique market position. But the resulting housing units have been fundamentally "cheap" in construction, rather than low-cost. As such, in their present form they are inadequate to the needs of their occupants and unsuited to providing the basic housing unit needed for healthy communities. Although they may often meet their objective of lower first-cost, their construction and choice of materials has historically ignored all factors of maintenance, up-grading, and rehabilitation so necessary to establish and maintain a viable community. Because the major consideration in the production of these units is initial construction rather than continued use of the dwelling, they also ignore the dynamics of the changing life styles and household requirements of the family and even become obsolete for human needs before they have structurally deteriorated.

To meet these problems, the systematically organized, well financed, and sophisticated management structure of large corporate businesses are entering into the mobile home industry and are proposing housing systems that utilize the mobile home concepts with the multi-discipline systems approach to provide a decent home and suitable living environment for mobile home dwellers.

When this revolution in the mobile home industry is successfully completed and its goals met, there should be very little discernable differences between what has previously been referred to as the mobile home industry and the newly developing post-operation BREAKTHROUGH multi-discipline systems approach industrially produced housing industry.

## 2. Housing Finance

In looking at the housing needs and the current housing situation in San Francisco, it is quite clear that the type of housing that will benefit the majority of the city's population is the apartment. Thus, this section of the report will have it's major emphasis on low and moderate income apartments although much of the material could also be used by those interested in high income apartments and single family dwellings.

The currently deteriorated housing situation gives rise to two alternative methods of creating living space; the rehabilitation of sub-standard units to meet the existing standards, and the urban renewal projects that are building new units to replace those that have been condemned. This does not preclude the necessity of building additional units to keep pace with yearly increases in the population of the city.

In looking at the possible sources of financing this need for housing, the relevant areas for consideration are: cost of the housing; the sources and terms of mortgage lending; and, the availability and distribution of investment capital. In addition, we are suggesting a new form of financial institution that will become another source of funds, two financial innovations, and several proposals that other groups might implement to facilitate the generation of funds for the financing of the housing projects.

### Costs of Housing

The costs of housing may be divided into two major categories with each one including a multitude of items that must be considered when making a cost estimate of a given project.

### New Construction

In costing out new construction the total costs include materials, labor, land, overhead, and financing. Additional



costs that must be considered after the units have been constructed, especially when costing out apartments, are insurance and maintenance. In apartment building, all of these costs plus those of non-occupied units determine the actual rental rates. The rents charged then determine the income level of the occupants. A well developed estimate of costs will determine the feasibility of the project and indicate the best method of construction.

### Rehabilitation of Existing Structures

Typically the costs of rehabilitation are less than those of new construction. Much of the work of building has already been done, therefore the costs and time needed to complete the job are not as great. Often the tenant or owner is able to do some of the work, thereby reducing the extent to which the costs are reflected in higher rents.

### Rehabilitation Cost and Non-Profit Organizations

When comparing the difference in DYS (do it yourself) cost and the average contractors cost of rehabilitation, the idea of a non-profit cooperation seems to be a possible workable solution. Such an organization could develop its own work force with an experienced and respected construction supervisor. The profit figure could be reduced thus reducing the contingency expense of the actual cost of the work. Along with efficient business management this could be a very meaningful solution to housing finance.

In San Francisco rehabilitation of structurally sound buildings may be more difficult than in some other locations. Since many of San Francisco's older apartment buildings are in better physical condition than many new ones, replacement of older buildings becomes a matter of economic obsolescence than a matter of physical deterioration. That is, the return from a modern building is greatly in excess of the revenue from the present structure.

## An Overview of the Sources and Terms of Mortgage Lending

During the twentieth century housing has constituted an investment outlet of vast size and great economic importance. The economic significance of this type of shelter directly affects real estate lending institutions and investors seeking advantageous investments. The risk factor must be considered by both owners and creditors if the advisability of making a loan or investment in a particular property is going to be properly evaluated.

A substantial number of possible sources exist for loans on apartment properties. In fact, lately prospective borrowers quite often found considerable competition between institutional lenders to make such loans. The most active lenders in this loan field have been: (1) savings and loan associations; (2) commercial banks; (3) mutual savings banks; (4) insurance companies; (5) mortgage companies; (6) the sellers of apartment properties; (7) various branches of the federal government that are authorized to make loans for apartments utilized by special groups such as the aged and infirm; and (8) special private sources such as pension funds and foundations.

In determining the terms and provisions of possible credit arrangements we are again dealing with legally established limitations upon such loans as well as those established by past experience and by the economic factors that seem to operate on the debt arrangement. Within these limitations the lender and the borrower can negotiate the terms of a specific loan agreement. However, as with the terms of loans for other purposes, loans on apartment properties will be governed primarily by statute and by administrative regulation.

If a government agency or private corporation insures the repayment of a loan, the loan-to-value ratio for certain institutional loans may go above 90%. If there is no such

insurance of the debt, the maximum for such loans is usually 75% of appraised value. For institutions such as banks, in which liquidity is particularly important to financial soundness, the ratio may sometimes drop to between 50 and 66.6%. Private sources of credit such as the seller, mortgage companies, and pension funds have greater latitude in making loans; therefore they may well exceed the two-thirds loan-to-value ratio.

If there is a possibility that a loan will be made on an apartment property, the usual procedure is for the lender to invite an application from the prospective borrower. Such application forms typically contain inquiries concerning: (1) name of borrower; (2) length of repayment period; (3) amount of money desired to be borrowed; (4) length of repayment period; (5) size of building; (6) type of construction; (7) gross rental income; (8) expenses of operation; (9) total number of apartments; (10) size of apartments; (11) borrower's experience in property management; (12) financial condition of the borrower; and (13) type of building. Naturally many more items can be included in an application form.

The property will usually be appraised by a qualified person. This valuation estimate and additional factual data produced by the appraisal will also be considered in making the loan, as well as by financial institutions and government agencies. In making the decision on a loan, therefore, the lender will have information relating to the request for credit based upon the financial statement of the borrower, the loan application, the appraiser's report, and any current market studies.

In most areas of the country, financial institutions are in a particularly sensitive position relative to the existing supply of apartment space. If they do not furnish the necessary credit in times of a space shortage, similar to the

current housing situation, the community suffers, and if they continue to make funds available when there is already an adequate supply of space for the foreseeable future (not likely anytime soon), they will contribute to a detrimental situation regarding real estate investments and loans.

#### Availability and Distribution of Real Estate Investment Capital in the San Francisco Bay Region

The availability of capital for real estate investment in the Bay Area closely follows national trends. Alternating periods of credit stringency and ease are closely associated with similar changes in the national money market. The only major difference is that since California is a capital deficit area, those requiring investment capital can expect to pay more for it than in other better supplied areas. In times of "easy" credit the Bay Area borrower may expect to pay, approximately 1/10 of 1% more than the national average. In times of "tight" credit, this difference can increase to as much as 4/10 of 1% and more. The availability of credit is largely a function of policies of the Federal Reserve Board. At present, there are few indications of an immediate slackening of the tight money situation.

The demand for housing appears to be influenced in the short run by the availability and terms of real estate loans and in the long run by changes in population, family formation and income, and net migration of households. It is anticipated that the shortage of real estate funds will continue in the immediate future. None of the financial institutions supplying real estate loans are able consistently to attract sufficient funds to meet all demands placed on them for loans.

The distribution of mortgage debt in the Bay Area at the end of 1960 is as follows:

Mortgage debt held by selected type of lenders on residential properties located in the San Francisco Bay Area at



the end of 1960.

Commercial Banks	21.4%
Savings & Loans	29.2%
Insurance Companies	27.0%
Federal Nat'l Mort. Assn.	5.4%
Mutual Savings Banks	13.7%
Pension Funds	3.3%
	<u>100.0%</u>

Of the total mortgage debt outstanding on Bay Area properties at the end of 1960, 43% represented outside funds, mostly supplied by mortgage holders.

The supply of new funds to the Bay region for 1960 through 1965 was approximately distributed as follows:

	Dollars	No. of Loans
Savings & Loans	39%	39%
Bonds	27%	19%
Insurance Companies	11%	1%
Mortgage Companies	2%	1%
Individuals & Others	20%	39%

In addition to the demand for loans to build or purchase homes, an increasing demand will develop for funds for alterations, repairs, and modernization as housing stock ages and prices of new homes rise. These demands will place additional drains on lending sources that normally support new construction.

As homes are completed the demand arises for shopping centers, theaters, churches, civic centers, hospitals, schools and varieties of non-residential construction. Such types of construction can be expected to continue to provide a major portion of the demand for construction with demands for residential construction loans. Commercial banks can provide loans for repairs, improvements and modernization on a business loan basis, but the amounts available are not sufficient to offset the increased demands for such loans.

San Francisco families receive one of the highest annual incomes in the nation; however, there are still many families

who do not share in this affluence. Many of these families are not adequately housed and unfortunately do not share in the flows of real estate loans either. This portion of the housing market is consistently under-supplied while, at the same time, the middle and upper-income family housing markets are rather consistently well-satisfied.

#### Proposal - A Quasi-Governmental Institution

In looking at traditional vehicles for raising funds, the tax free status which local governments have for floating debt issues is particularly attractive. Thus we raise the question of creating a financial institution whose purpose is to float debt issues specifically slated for local housing programs. The funds generated would be used solely for housing programs. Our idea is to make it quasi-governmental so that the institution can obtain the tax free status for its debt issues. In conjunction with this proposal, it is suggested that the current limitation on the total value of the public bonds be increased to allow these debt issues to be floated.

Another option that this institution could initiate would be the issuance of convertible securities of a type in which equity is converted into debt. The Federal Government could supply the initial equity that would eventually be assumed by the landlord or tenant, thereby leaving the government in the debt position.

#### Financial Innovations

Two promising, proposed, but not yet effectively implemented financing innovations are:

a) National Housing Partnerships - Private firms in any kind of business will form partnerships to aggregate their assets for direct investment in housing ventures. A firm with good net income but a poor cash flow situation will find the distribution of book losses (primarily from depre-

ciation) proportional to its investment to be attractive. Each partnership must embrace 75% local capital. The partnership, established by Congress in 1968, represents the profit-motivated application of private capital from firms large and small in providing housing for low and moderate income families, primarily through the federal housing subsidy programs.

b) To simplify housing investment for institutions (pension funds, insurance companies, etc., would control very large pools of capital and small investors alike) a new, negotiable open market bond should be issued by the Government National Mortgage Association (GNMA). Secured by a pool of mortgages, the bonds bear federally guaranteed principal and interest. The bonds would be issued in popular denominations and maturities, at interest rates equivalent to other government bonds, and redeemable in cash if the particular mortgage pool the series represents becomes insolvent. While a mortgage is a cumbersome investment -- not easily traded or converted to cash, not easily redeemed in the event of foreclosure, issued only by institutions expert in real estate appraisal -- the proposed GNMA bond would be as negotiable and secure as other government securities. A large volume of funds, at the prevailing interest rates and constrained by general "tightness" of the money supply, would consequently be attracted to investment in housing for low and middle-income families.

Other techniques, less subtle but more broadly effective and politically risky, might be tried when the mortgage funds shortage is defined as "dire":

1. Congress appropriate several billion dollars of the National Budget for the Home Loan Bank Board to loan to savings and loan associations.
2. Direct the Federal Reserve Board to directly purchase housing agency obligations.

## Suggestions for Changing Current Policies

In looking into the housing finance situation it becomes apparent that many of the proposed solutions are many faced. It would be impossible for a solution to become viable without changes in some other aspect of the city's method of doing things.

A major problem of low income housing is the lack of value that tenants place in their homes. Too often the low income housing is segregated and the people resent this distinction. The housing units are poorly constructed and put together as inexpensively as possible. This combination of elements develops a house not a home, and the houses are not maintained. The maintenance costs of a building can become astronomical, but maintenance is needed to keep the structures within the standards imposed by various agencies, and prolong the useful life of the building. If the welfare system was altered to allow for housing subsidies of various types, these tenants would have the freedom to live in a house of their choice. This could eliminate the segregated projects of today, allow people of various levels of income to live together giving everyone the luxuries of a moderate income apartment, diminish the housing maintenance problems of a project, and generate within many people respect of themselves, their families, and their homes.

Another suggestion, as previously indicated, is the increase in the amount of debt issue that a local government agency can float. As the majority of the housing projects are within the city and the normal sources of financing, especially during times of tight money, are not particularly interested in investing in urban housing projects, a reasonable financing solution is to have the city generate its own money. The issuance of public bonds, similar to school bonds, with the money being especially designated for the financing of local housing projects is one proposed method. Due to



large sums of money needed to build new housing it is unlikely that this new debt instrument could be included under the current regulations, therefore, the debt ceiling should be raised.

#### A Strategy for the Financing of Housing

We propose the creation of a corporation that will investigate alternative methods of financing for the various types of housing that will be required in the "target areas". It will help cost out the financial requirements of the new housing projects and rehabilitation operations as determined by the housing experts, and seek the means necessary to generate the required capital. Various conventional sources will be used based upon the peculiarities of each project, and new sources will be suggested if appropriate.

#### General Comments and Recommendations

Considerable effort must be made to increase the amount of private capital currently being invested in housing for lower income families. Several different proposals designed to accomplish this objective are presented under this recommendation section of the report. A somewhat different approach to this same goal is presented in the following description of an investment opportunity proposed by two private businessmen from Georgia, Howard J. Simpson and Scott Grant. (While the offer is presented in terms designed to be most appealing to the private investor, the broader implications of the innovation are still quite apparent.)

Messrs. Simpson and Grant offer to assign 5 equal interests of 6 per cent each, aggregating 30 per cent, in their co-venture, or partnership, which owns and is to operate Cedar Heights, a complex of 150 apartments located in Marietta, Georgia.

The project is one of the first "Rent Supplements" in the U.S. Under this concept, private enterprise provides living units formerly available only through governmentally

owned public housing. The construction is rigidly inspected by FHA to determine that it conforms to plans and specifications approved by that agency, and the availability of construction money is insured by the federal government.

Under the program, the amounts of the rents are also subject to FHA approval and are set to provide funds for debt service, care and maintenance, replacements, management, and other operational expenses not including depreciation. Apart from the equity growth produced by the reduction of the mortgage principal, the maximum operational profit is negligible (.66% of investment).

This type of project takes its name, Rent Supplement, from the fact that governmental contributions are made to supplement the rent-paying ability of the tenants.

#### The Nature of Investment

The immediate and very substantial benefits of these investments are realized through their participation in the operating losses of the co-venture. Because the rents do not cover depreciation (other than a reserve for replaceable items), that expense cannot be offset by any profit except equity growth. And, since that growth is relatively minimal in the earlier mortgage years, the depreciation expense will assure net operating losses.

By utilizing his proportionate share of these losses, each investor thus lessens his otherwise taxable income. To a taxpayer whose income puts him in a surcharged bracket, the tax dollars thus saved are much more valuable than the same dollar amount in additional earnings. For tax savings are an absolute gain, while additional investment yield is diminished by creating further tax liability at even higher rates. For instance, each tax dollar saved by a taxpayer in the 50 percent bracket is equal to at least two dollars in additional income.

Nor can the absolute gains produced by these investments

be diluted by any unplanned operating loss. For each investor is a limited partner, and therefore his initial investment is his only cost. He is not liable for any mortgage obligation or any part of an operating deficit. Indeed, the only effect of such a deficit would be to increase the value of his investment by increasing the deductions from taxable income which he is entitled to take.

### The Value of the Investment

Each share in the co-venture may be purchased for \$25,000 and the very generous returns therefrom are based upon a useful economic building life of 25 years. Each investor's taxable income will be cumulatively reduced by the amount of his investment in just five years. And his cumulative reduction in taxable income plus his pro-rata share of appreciated equity growth will equal the amount of his investment in just over two years.

Even though the Internal Revenue Service's "Guidelines" suggest 40 years as an "average" apartment house life, the use of the 25 year basis is quite realistic for these structures, by reason of their inexpensive frame construction, intensity of use and type of tenancy, will certainly sustain much faster-than-average depreciation.

Although no formal ruling can be obtained until after the co-venture files its first tax return, the application of the 25 year depreciation rate is entirely consistent with the informal conference opinions expressed by the Office of the Chief Engineer, Internal Revenue Service, Washington, D.C.

### The Added Bonus

In addition to his important tax savings, produced by the reduction in his taxable income, each investor simultaneously shares in the growth of equity as the mortgage payments are made from operating revenues. (The term "equity

growth" here means the reduction in the principal amount of the mortgage.)

Even this increment is tailored to the needs of the taxpayer, because it is not taxable until a sale of the property. And then it is not ordinary income, but is subject only to the reduced rates applicable to capital gains.

The equity expansion, like the tax savings, is indeed quite profitable. For instance, at the end of five years, the equity owned by each investor will be \$11,628.58, at the end of ten years \$15,381.74, at the end of fifteen years \$20,444.19, and at the end of twenty years \$27,272.68.

This impressive growth is all the more so because it does not include any of the realistically anticipated appreciation. A conservative estimate of appreciation in the Marietta, Georgia area is 1 1/2 percent per year. Taking this factor into consideration, the equity that will be owned by each investor at the end of ten years will be \$29,552.37, at the end of fifteen years will be \$42,521.69, and at the end of twenty years will be \$57,888.89.

Thus, these investments provide excellent protection against the inflationary trend, as well as an opportunity to save large amounts in taxes and to participate in capital-gain equity growth.

The value of this investment scheme in terms of increasing the amount of private capital being channeled into low income housing should now also be apparent. By offering private investors a lucrative and, at least in part, guaranteed investment opportunity, it is not difficult to obtain their participation. The important thing is that this investment opportunity is as profitable (and for some people, depending on their tax bracket, even more so) as most other real estate investments. This, I believe, is the key to developing successful programs and investment schemes designed to attract private capital to the field of low-income housing.



Also in line with the objective of encouraging private capital and private industry to aid in solving the housing problem is the "turnkey" method of housing construction. In the next few pages I will outline in some detail what this new program involves and what advantages it has to offer. It should become apparent that any composite housing finance programs designed to stimulate the construction of low-income housing should at least consider "turnkey" construction as one possible alternative.

"Turnkey" is a term which is familiar to those engaged in residential building. It means that the prospective purchaser of a piece of residential property contracts to buy it at the point when all he needs to do is turn the door key and move himself or his tenants in. It reverses the traditional public housing construction system under which a local housing authority (LHA) buys a site, develops plans and specifications, and selects a contractor to do the work from among the ones who bid on the job.

The application of "turnkey" to public housing construction was developed by the Department of Housing and Urban Development in conjunction with the private residential building industry. It utilizes the statutory authority of the U.S. Housing Act of 1937, as amended:

This is the way "turnkey" works:

A developer who has an appropriate site, or structures in need of rehabilitation, makes a proposal to the LHA for the area to build or rehabilitate some housing in accordance with his own plans and specifications. If the proposal is acceptable, the parties enter into a Letter of Intent followed by a contract of sale under which the LHA agrees to purchase the completed housing. The Letter of Intent and contract of sale are backed up by the financial commitment by the Department of Housing and Urban Development to the LHA and to the developer. This commitment assures the availability of the purchase money upon completion and assures the

developer (or his financing institution) that if the LHA should fail to carry out its contract, HUD will take over the rights and obligations of the LHA and carry out its contract. With this LHA-HUD commitment, the developer obtains his financing through normal private lending channels. Construction and inspection standard and practices under "turnkey" conform to private commercial practices in general.

The method is being applied to housing that includes highrise developments with special facilities for the elderly, new or rehabilitated row houses, and detached prefabricated houses. Construction techniques are being tailored to fit local conditions and needs and the developer's usual practices. Large-scale rehabilitators, for example, are developing mass rehabilitation techniques which are being used in large cities. Other rehabilitation techniques are being applied to smaller groups of houses in different kinds of communities by different types of builders.

Initial experience has shown numerous advantages of "turnkey" over traditional government construction. In addition, this method offers new business opportunities to members of local building and financing enterprises that have been engaged only in private construction. Its advantages, enjoyed by both the community at large and the low income population, include:

- \* Substantial cost savings (up to 15 percent)
- \* Substantial time savings in getting needed low-rent housing built (as much as two or three years)
- \* Better possibilities for developing projects and neighborhoods without too high concentration of very poor families.
- \* Extreme flexibility in design type, construction techniques, and types of entrepreneurs taking part.

The flexibility of "turnkey" makes it especially

appropriate for builders who want to engage in rehabilitation. Depending upon the structural type of the housing in rundown condition, homebuilders, remodelers, and contractors can all find opportunities.

The Los Angeles Times, on March 6, 1970, carried an article which contained several important insights into the "turnkey" leasing program. The article began by quoting a prominent real estate lawyer, William K. Glikbarg, who chastised the savings and loan industry for not committing enough funds to the "turnkey" apartment housing programs for the poor.

Glikbarg stated that his company, Ogo Associates of Beverly Hills, has arranged for construction of some 500 units but that builders have been hampered by lending institutions' reluctance to get into the field.

The reasons behind this reluctance provide some realistic insights into today's housing finance industry, and the insights are equally applicable to San Francisco as they are to Los Angeles.

One reason that some savings and loan associations are not lending in this area is that they have not been able to increase their borrowing from the Home Loan Bank System because of statutory maximums.

Insurance companies won't enter the field because they are unwilling to lend more than about two-thirds of a property's appraised value.

Savings and loan associations are also being forced to avoid "turnkey" programs because of racial fears of their savings customers. Some savings and loan's have been scared out of participation by local homeowners' objections to having racially mixed rental housing in their neighborhoods.

One mortgage expert commented at the annual management meeting of the California Savings and Loan League that "savings and loans have been staying away because of the red

tape involved. It can take literally years for an association to get all the quadruplicate forms and documents for a loan cleared through the Department of Housing and Urban Development, which has to approve each property and give the federal guarantee."

The implications of all of these observations is apparent. The problems presented represent just a few more hurdles which must be cleared on the track to solving the problem of inadequate and substandard housing. If the financing obstacles mentioned above, however, can be overcome in San Francisco, then it is recommended that the "turnkey" program be given serious consideration in the search for solutions to the housing problem.

A general observation worth making, if only briefly, is that those interested in improving housing conditions through financial innovations should not allow the government to get "off-the-hook" in this area by substitute measures, such as intensifying old code enforcement programs.

While such measures are appealing in the eyes of the government (because they don't cost anything and because it seems to be a positive measure toward eliminating slums), these efforts do not attack the housing problem at the roots. Code enforcement, for example, cannot in itself provide enough good housing for the poor. It cannot cure overcrowding in one area without creating overcrowding in another. Of course, these small measures may still be worthwhile, but they clearly should not be substitutes for the really important things the government should do, i.e., provide funds and develop programs to encourage the construction of new homes and rehabilitation of old homes.

In passing, it is perhaps worth quoting from Government and Slum Housing, a book written by Professor Lawrence Friedman of the Stanford Law School.

....Programs to punish and destroy the evil slum landlord have helped to create or at least



perpetuate the evil slum landlord. Intensification projects and administrative reforms run the risk of making slum housing more expensive than ever of making slum housing more expensive than ever before, both financially and emotionally. A program of hatred and coercion may make some landlords give heat, make repairs, and get rid of rats. But the crackdown approach is indirect and perhaps self-defeating. It does not provide new investment in the slums; it discourages it. Something new must be tried.....

The "something new" which must be tried, clearly must be financial in nature. There are some times when there is no substitute for lots of money, and this is one of those times.

## E. TRANSPORTATION STATE

### Introduction

As a city, San Francisco has shown an unusual degree of interest in developing a transit-oriented transportation system, as evidenced by the high ridership of AC Transit and Muni, the construction of BART and Muni Rapid, and the elimination of several freeways from the city's trafficways section of the Master Plan. At the same time, however, San Francisco is clogged by automobiles, particularly in the downtown area, and often overwhelmed by the smog they produce. In this description of the present state of transportation in San Francisco, the reasons for this apparent contradiction should become clear.

#### 1. Transportations' Impact on San Francisco

On the one hand, transportation gets people into the city (in particular, into the CBD), around it, and back out again, and it does so in a variety of manners varying from cable cars to ferries to the private automobile. This is the aspect of transportation most often considered.

There are other aspects to the city's transportation, however, which must also be kept in mind. The various elevated freeways in the city are a blight on the skyline, and a source of irritation to those who must look at them and listen to them, and who must live under them. The motorist driving up scenic Interstate 280 in San Mateo County is often shocked by the smog layer he sees just over the horizon ahead of him; but then fifteen minutes later he joins thousands of cars in adding to this pollution. This discussion will concentrate on the "hardware" aspects of San Francisco's transportation system; however, the environmental implications of that system, and projected or proposed alterations and additions, must be borne in mind.

a. Outline

The first half of this section of the report will discuss the systems which bring 200,000 commuters into the city every day from Marin, the East Bay, and the Peninsula. Included will be a detailed analysis of the peak hour problem. Then, transportation facilities within the city itself will be examined, with particular emphasis on the Municipal Rail way ("Muni"). In both cases, present systems will be discussed in some detail, and an idea given of future plans. It should be borne in mind, however, that millions of dollars have gone into studying San Francisco's transportation. Therefore, if more detail is desired, the reader should refer to the annotated bibliography; here, the emphasis will be on giving the "flavor" of the various systems, although there must, of course, be some numerical data.

b. Commutation

Figure II-26 is a map showing how the commuter enters San Francisco; Table II-12 is a matrix showing how many of them there are. The following discussion will examine the different modes available to commuters coming from different directions and also evaluate their effectiveness in performing their tasks. Perhaps most important, however, will be the thorough analysis of the peak hour problem; if you can handle the highest level of demand, you can satisfy lesser levels. Further, if the systems have adequate capacity for the peak "in" and "out" commutes, they will have more than enough capacity to handle "reverse" commutation; indeed, further use of "reverse" commutation will increase facility utilization, as would economically be desired.

c. Golden Gate Corridor

1. Present Service - The 30,000 morning commuters (13,000 in the peak hour) traveling through this corridor have their choice of the private automobile (84%), a rather poor Greyhound bus service (15%), or a ferry service from Tiburon

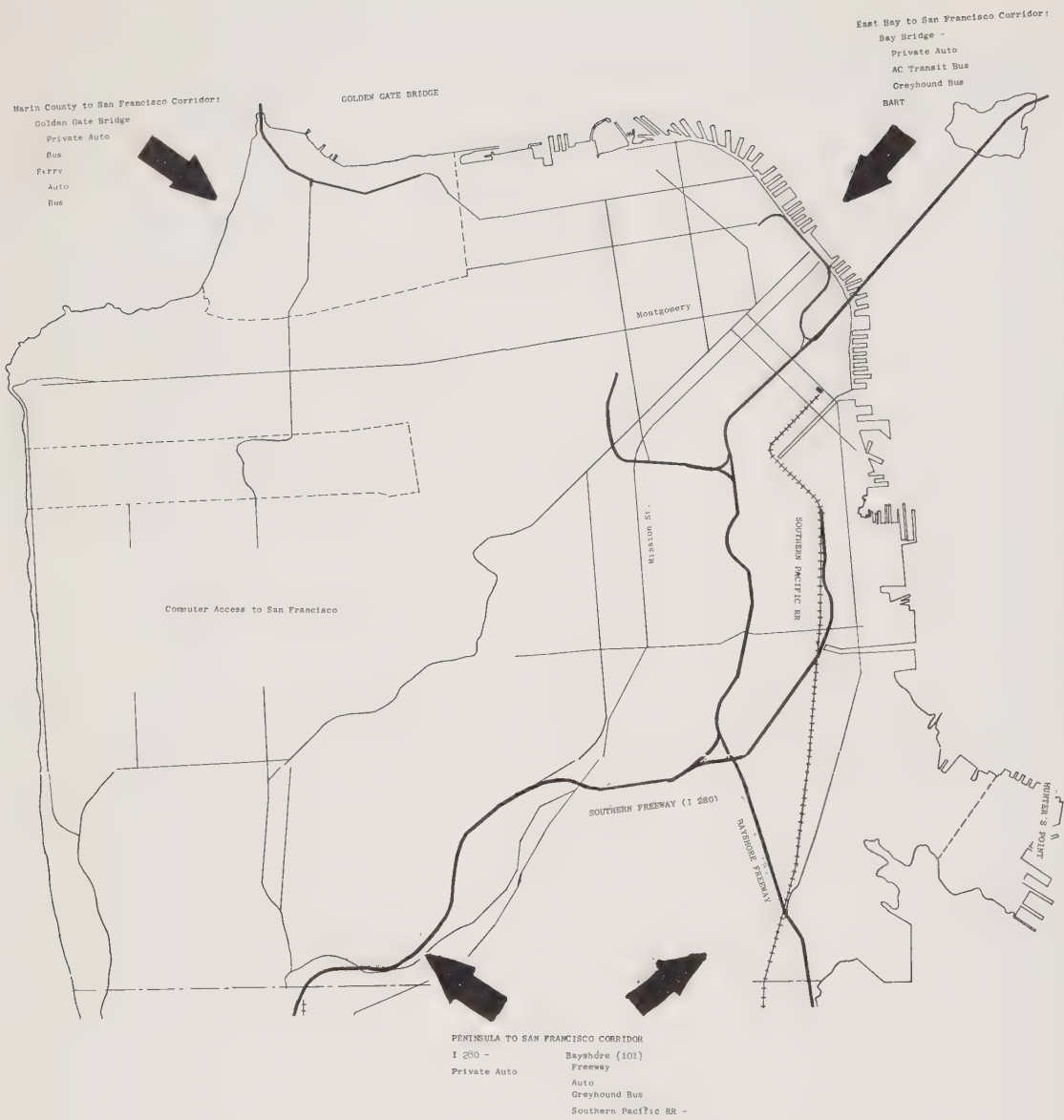


Figure II-26. COMMUTER ACCESS TO SAN FRANCISCO



Table II-12  
GROSS COMMUTE MATRIX  
1965  
(Thousands)

<u>County</u>	<u>Into San Francisco<sup>1</sup></u>		<u>Out of San Francisco<sup>2</sup></u>	
	<u>Number</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>%</u>
Alameda	44.0	9.1	11.1	3.2
Contra Costa	21.1	4.5	1.7	0.5
Marin	27.2	5.7	2.3	0.7
Napa	0.7	0.1	0.1	0.0
San Mateo	75.7	15.8	19.5	5.8
Santa Clara	13.3	2.8	1.4	0.4
Solano	2.9	0.6	0.3	0.1
Sonoma	2.7	0.6	0.0	0.0
Other	---	---	6.4	1.9
Sub Total	187.4	39.1	42.8	12.6
San Francisco	293.9	60.9	293.9	87.4
Totals	481.3	100.0	336.7	100.0

Totals may not add due to rounding

Notes: 1) Numbers in this column indicate the residence location of those working in San Francisco; the "in commute."

2) Numbers in this column indicate the employment location of those living in San Francisco; the "reverse commute."

Source: 1965 Home Interviews by Bay Area Transportation Study Commission.

(1%) which will soon be supplemented by a second vessel serving Sausalito (August, 1970). Two-thirds of these commuters work in San Francisco's financial district.

At the peak, traffic on the Golden Gate Bridge is at the bridge's capacity of 7200 vehicles per hour. However, on a good weather day with no accidents, it is not uncommon to find traffic moving across the bridge at the limit, hindered only by the condition of U.S. 101 at some points in Marin and the congestion of the bridge approaches in San Francisco. A freeway route from downtown San Francisco to the Golden Gate Bridge is considered necessary by the Department of City Planning.

## 2. Golden Gate Bridge, Highway and Transportation District - One particularly interesting

aspect of this corridor is the Golden Gate Bridge, Highway and Transportation District, formerly known as the Golden Gate Bridge and Highway District. This District was originally established to oversee the Golden Gate Bridge while the bonds floated during its construction were paid back. However, the present directors have put the District into the transportation business in a major way by not limiting themselves to the Bridge. During the five month strike of Harbor Tours, the operator of the Tiburon/San Francisco ferry service, the District arranged with Harbor Tours to continue the operation "for the public good," as the Bridge is just at the point where 300 cars (out of 7000) can make the difference between congestion and smooth sailing. In fact, after a slow start, the District made a profit through such service innovations as midday and weekend scheduling, and lowering the fare from \$0.75 to \$0.50. Indeed, the District enjoyed operating ferries so much that, with Harbor Tours back in service, it is currently spending \$600,000+ to purchase and recondition a ferry, the Point Loma, to introduce in service between Sausalito and San Francisco's Ferry Building in August.

In addition, the District is organizing a "club bus" commute service as a prelude to launching an ambitious commuter bus system for Marin-San Francisco travel. One interesting bus project which has been encouraged by the District is an entirely black-owned and operated feeder bus for the Tiburon ferry. It supplies 20% of ferry business, and 65% of the bus users say they otherwise wouldn't take the ferry. It is anticipated that this service will be expanded to include the new ferry service to Sausalito; indeed, Sausalito is requiring feeder service of some sort. Further, the Ford Foundation announced in May, 1970, a \$20,000 grant to study the feasibility of expanding the system to all of Marin. The District has also financed several reports concerning future transportation in the corridor. Two studies currently underway are a Kaiser Engineers study on a transit link between San Francisco and Marin, and a ferry system study by Philip Spaulding, the naval architect who has been advising the District concerning the Point Loma. One of the technical controversies still to be finally resolved is whether the Bridge is capable of supporting a second deck to handle rapid transit between San Francisco and Marin.

It should be noted that some controversy surrounds the District and its directors. The critics suggest that the directors are more interested in self-perpetuation than in doing something for the Marin commuter, and transportation in general; they point to the large contracts that the District gives for studies which seem to continually come up with contradictory results -- such as the second deck controversy. Much of the criticism may merely be jealousy that the District's surplus enables it to commission expert studies. In fact, the District is required to submit a long-range plan to the State Legislature prior to June, 1971, and is trying to obtain competent professional advice; further, its actions certainly seem to be in the best interests of the Marin commuters.

3. Outlook - Demand for space on the Golden Gate Bridge during the peak hours will show drastic increases over the next twenty years, as the following table shows:

<u>Year</u>	<u>Commuters</u>
1970	30,000
1980	47,000
1990	73,000

Over the next ten years, the District is planning expansion of present services to handle demand. For example, the introduction of a second commuter ferry should serve 900/1300 commuters a day, or 600/1000 automobiles during the peak hours. Over the next decade, the District intends to continue expansion of the ferry service, with Corte Madera the next stop to be added; however, approximately \$1 million will be required to dredge a channel there. According to Spaulding, service to points farther north, such as Gallinas Creek on the bay east of Terra Linda and north of San Rafael, will require vehicles with speeds faster than the 23 mph ferries to be used in Corte Madera. Hovercraft and hydrofoils are capable of higher speeds, but have yet to be completely proven.

As indicated earlier, it is anticipated that a modern commuter bus system will be established between San Francisco and Marin within the next five years. Initially, it is anticipated that a better service would increase bus commuters from 4,000 daily to 6,600 daily.

Also, the Golden Gate Bridge hopes to encourage car pools. However, a recent experiment in this direction by the Bay Bridge was totally unsuccessful.

In sum, present systems should be capable of satisfying demand for the next ten years, if they are suitably expanded



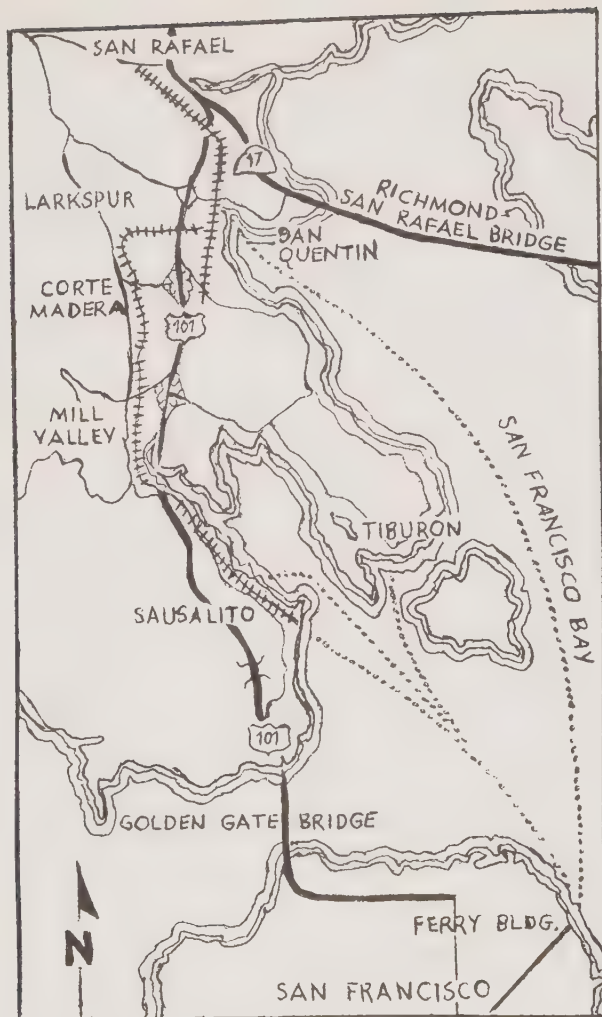
through the addition of additional frequencies and stops. Between 1980 and 1990, however, an increase of 26,000 commuters is anticipated -- almost as many as there are in total today. The present systems will be unable to take care of this demand; by 1985, introduction of some other form of transit will be needed. It is interesting to note in this regard that the ferry terminals will be in close proximity to the right-of-way of the Northwest Pacific railroad (see Fig. II-27).

#### 4. East Bay

a. Present Service - Commuters traveling from the East Bay to San Francisco use the Bay Bridge. However, as seen in Table II-13 there is major difference between the Bay Bridge and the Golden Gate: the East Bay commuter is almost as likely to take a bus (Greyhound or AC Transit) as his own car. Thus, while the Bay Bridge has only one more peak hour lane than the Golden Gate Bridge (equivalent to 1800 cars), it carries almost twice as many commuters during the peak hour.

b. AC Transit - The major reason for the large number of bus riders is AC Transit, the bus service of the Alameda Contra Costa Transit District. The District was formed in 1956 and consists of 11 cities and some unincorporated areas in the named counties, and covers 150 square miles and over one million inhabitants. In 1960, AC Transit took over from the privately owned Key System Transit, and has had remarkable success; indeed, it is necessary for efficient commuting, as the June, 1970 strike has so vividly pointed out.

It operates twelve transbay routes plus thirty-two routes in the East Bay. Between 1961 and 1965, transbay passengers increased by 14%, and local East Bay passengers by 10%. The rising trend has continued, as recent AC Transit figures show (February, 1970 vs. February, 1969):



Dotted lines indicate the present ferry route to Tiburon and proposed future lines to Sausalito and Corte Madera. Crossed lines show existing railroad right-of-way.

Figure II-27. FERRY ROUTES IN CLOSE PROXIMITY TO RAILROAD RIGHT-OF-WAY

Table II-13  
BAY BRIDGE RUSH HOUR STATISTICS  
(Westbound 4/16/69)

Rush Hour (6:30 - 9:00 A.M.)

<u>Vehicle Type</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Passengers</u>	<u>%</u>
Cars	16,973	86.3	23,860	54.5
Busses	573	2.7	17,794	40.5
Other	2,182	12.0	2,182*	5.0
Total	19,692	100.0	43,836	100.0

Peak Hour (7:00 - 8:00 A.M.)

<u>Vehicle Type</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Passengers</u>	<u>%</u>
Cars	7,457	86.3	10,840	44.5
Busses	349	4.0	12,548	51.8
Other	851	9.7	851*	3.7
Total	8,657	100.0	24,239	100.0

Other Facts

Peak Hour begins at 0642, has 9,381 vehicles (11.6% of day's total)

Rush Hour (0630-0900) has 24.3% of day's total of 80,987 vehicles, 67.4% of day's total of 26,400 bus passengers.

Source: Traffic Survey Series A-32, University of California, Institute of Transportation and Traffic Engineering.

Table II-14

## INCREASE IN TRANSBAY PASSENGERS

<u>Service</u>	<u>% Change</u>
Transbay	+ 1.74%
East Bay	+ 3.25%
All U.S. Transit	- 6.30%

It should be noted that while AC Transit is doing better at the farebox than the rest of the transit industry nationally, it is faced with the same problem of costs which are rising faster than revenues. In February, 1970, revenue was up 8.47% and operating costs were up 10.46%. Since its inception, AC Transit has had to raise its tax rate from \$0.01 from \$0.17, per \$100 assessed value. The strike will undoubtedly require a still higher rate.

A recent innovation in interest is the establishment of an exclusive lane for buses at the Bay Bridge Toll Plaza, allowing them to cut five to ten minutes off car times for the crossing. Another advantage of the buses is that they have a terminal adjacent to the financial district in downtown San Francisco, thus placing the rider near his working area with no worry (expense and time) about parking. One measure of the efficiency and desirability of the service is that 20% of the transbay riders take a car to the bus (vs. 5.5% for the rest of AC Transit and Muni), which also indicates that commuters will transfer from cars to public transit if the service is convenient.

c. Bay Area Rapid Transit District - The District was created in 1957 by the California State Legislature, and originally included the five counties of Alameda, Contra Costa, Marin, San Francisco, and San Mateo. However, Marin and San Mateo have both dropped out of the District: Marin because an early engineering study considered it in-



feasible to place rapid transit facilities on the Golden Gate Bridge, and San Mateo because it thought the costs would outweigh the benefits for its residents (see page II-151 on Peninsula commuting). On November 6, 1962, 61% of the voters (60% was required for passage) approved the issuance of \$792 million in general obligation bonds to finance construction of the system (minus the Transbay tube which is being paid for by revenue bonds of the California Toll Bridge Authority secured by the revenues of the Bay Bridge, the San Mateo Bridge, and the Dumbarton Bridge). Bond interest and principal are to be paid back out of property taxes, while operating expenses and rolling stock should be paid for by operating revenues.

The system is shown in Fig. II-28 along with projected travel times. BARTD will average roughly 50 mph from East Bay terminal stations (Richmond, Concord, and Fremont) to San Francisco's Central Business District (CBD), including stop time. The trains will be composed of from two to ten cars (72 seats each) operating at speeds of up to 70 mph under advanced automatic train control permitting minimum headways of 90 seconds. Thus, the seated capacity of BARTD will be 30,000 people/hour, exceeding the present hourly peak flow across the Bay Bridge by 25%. The first commuters across the bay are expected in late 1972.

Clearly, BARTD will have a significant impact on commuting from the East Bay. It has been predicted by Simpson and Curtin that BARTD will divert 3200 automobiles in the peak hour (two lanes of traffic) and carry 80-90% of AC Transit's transbay passengers (four lanes); thus, BARTD will be the equivalent of six transbay automobile lanes in the peak hour/peak direction.

BARTD will also have an impact on the present transit system. For example, it is expected that AC Transit will become a feeder for BARTD, giving up most of its transbay routes. However, AC Transit officials have recently expressed



some dis-satisfaction with this arrangement, stating that it may well be faster to take AC Transit all the way to San Francisco rather than transfer between modes. In saying this, AC Transit is well aware that its transbay routes generate surplusses to help offset losses on the feeder routes (36.6¢ per vehicle mile in 1965) in the East Bay; therefore, abdication of transbay service would require further increases in the jumping tax rate. BARTD will also have a significant impact on San Francisco's Municipal Railway, as will be discussed later. Perhaps more important, however, are the more subtle implications. First, BARTD has encouraged the Board of Supervisors to adopt a plan calling for doubling CBD employment over the next twenty years. The result has been an unprecedented building boom in the downtown area, as business anticipates easier access to the area for its employees. Similarly, BARTD is influencing land use and property values all along its routing, and encouraging the development of residential areas at its East Bay terminus points.

BARTD can also be expected to aid those planning for a "reverse" commute to get present unemployed and "underemployed" persons out of the city to potential job locations. The Mission District, a center of unemployment, is the best served residential community of San Francisco, with two stations. On the other hand, this may be a mixed blessing as property values (e.g., rents force residents out of the area).

Most importantly, the outcome of the BARTD experiment in regional rail rapid transit will be watched by transportation planners in other large cities anxious to be rid of the cycle of miles of concrete and skies clouded by automobile pollutants. In the Bay Area, Marin and San Mateo will also be watching as they consider rejoining BARTD, or establishing connecting systems.

## 5. Peninsula

The daily volume of traffic into San Francisco via the major arteries, and mass transit modes, is shown in Table II-15 unfortunately, with the exception of the Southern Pacific, peak hour figures do not seem to be readily available, although they can be estimated. In this section, there will be discussion of each of the available modes, as well as a paragraph on the West Bay Rapid Transit Authority.

a. Freeways - The peninsula is served by two major freeways, the Bayshore (U.S. 101) and Junipero Serra (I-280), known as the Southern Freeway in San Francisco. The Bayshore was effectively completed in May, 1958, when the James Lick portion was finished; it will be widened to four lanes in each direction in all of San Mateo County by 1975. Although begun in 1963, the Junipero Serra Freeway is still missing a five mile portion in San Mateo County which was held up by a dispute over route selection. It is now expected that the Freeway will be completed in late 1974. In San Francisco, the route is complete only to 18th street, which means that CBD-bound commuters must either take 15-20 minutes to wind through the South of Market industrial district, or get onto U.S. 101 at the Alemany interchange. Many choose the latter, creating rush hour traffic jams of large magnitude at the interchange. The extension of I-280 to Sixth Street is scheduled for summer, 1971 completion; while this will undoubtedly ease the interchange bottleneck, as the highway engineers predict, it will also put added pressure on the CBD to supply further parking at the same time that the Board of Supervisors wishes to discourage downtown automobile travel.

A third peninsula freeway, the so-called Bay Front Freeway from San Jose to San Francisco, has been planned for ten years; however, in a move aimed primarily at Southern Crossing critics, the California Department of Public Works in



Table II-15  
PENINSULA - SAN FRANCISCO TRAVEL

<u>Route</u>	<u>Daily Vehicles</u>
Bayshore (U.S. 101)	50,000
I-280	15,850
El Camino	11,500
Highway 1	<u>8,500</u>
Total	85,850
Greyhound	8,500 people
Southern Pacific	<u>11,500</u> "
Total	20,000

Source: Simpson and Curtin, Coordinated Transit for the San Francisco Bay Area -- Now to 1975.

April, 1970 asked the State Assembly Transportation Committee to eliminate the 40 mile route from the map.

El Camino Real and the Pacific Coast Highway (Highway 1) are secondary highways which feed the city; El Camino feeds into the Southern Freeway, while Highway 1 traffic feeds into the Southern Freeway and Nineteenth Avenue. Thus, I-280 and U.S. 101 can be considered to be the principal freeway routes from the peninsula into the CBD.

b. Southern Pacific Railroad - The San Jose-San Francisco right-of-way has been in use since the early part of the twentieth century. During World War II, the line carried ten to thirteen thousand daily passengers in each direction. This number dropped briefly at the end of the war when gasoline rationing was ended, but then climbed to a peak of 16,000 in 1954. The 1958 completion of the James Lick Freeway, and hence the Bayshore system, produced an immediate drop in Southern Pacific's totals. For the past nine years, the daily patronage has remained virtually constant at 11,500 commuters, while freeway use has risen steadily to its present saturation level.

At the present time, the Southern Pacific is operating 23 commuter trains with a total capacity of 12,250 seated. During the peak hour, the trains are scheduled with a minimum headway of four minutes, emptying about 4,240 passengers into the Third and Townsend San Francisco depot in less than an hour. From the depot, the commuters can take frequently over-crowded busses up crowded Third Street to Market, or walk the three-fourths of a mile.

Financially, the commuter service is not worthwhile to Southern Pacific. Although operating expenses are covered by revenue, the line suffers a yearly \$1 million deficit when fixed costs are included. This negative return on investment is not sufficient inducement for Southern Pacific to expand its service; further, in 1968 the Southern Pacific

indicated to the West Bay Rapid Transit Authority that it would not accept subsidy as compensation for increasing service. However, at the present time the Southern Pacific rates are below those projected for BARTD, on a per mile basis; further the \$1 million deficit works out to

$$\frac{\$1 \text{ million}}{(20,000 \text{ commuters/day}) \times (5 \text{ days/week}) \times (52 \text{ weeks/year})} = \$0.20/\text{fare}$$

Therefore, a fare increase might well erase the deficit without losing very many passengers to the presently clogged free-way system.

c. Greyhound - Although Greyhound carries a respectable number of people into San Francisco daily, it is not commuter-oriented. For instance, Palo Alto service consists of a bus every half hour (peak and off-peak) which follows the El Camino up to Belmont before turning onto the Bayshore -- hardly a commuter's delight.

For further indication of Greyhound's small role in the West Bay, consider the following San Mateo County statistics: between 1948 and 1967, patronage declined from 9.7 million passengers annually to 7.4 million passengers while the population was tripling (and automobile registration increasing fivefold).

Again, the commuter service is not rewarding to Greyhound. In fact, in 1968 the company told the West Bay Rapid Transit Authority that the deficits were such that it would like to stop the service, although it would be glad to operate a service "adequately" (= profitably), compensated for by the Authority.

d. West Bay Rapid Transit Authority (WBRTA) - Originally, San Mateo County was a member of the Bay Area Rapid Transit District (BARTD), but withdrew in 1962, ostensibly because the proposed facilities were thought to be too

expensive with relatively few benefits for San Mateo County residents. In fact, San Mateo withdrew because local businessmen were opposed to improved access to San Francisco, fearing loss of business.

In May, 1964 the California State Legislature created the West Bay Rapid Transit Authority, which in 1965 sponsored a large study by a team of engineers: De Leuw, Cather and Company, George S. Nolte Consulting Civil Engineers, Inc., and Stanford Research Institute. The study was completed in 1968, and proposed the immediate implementation of a complete, publicly-owned bus network for San Mateo County, joint action with San Francisco to link the airport with BARTD at Daly City, and adoption of a plan which would provide eventual extension of regional rapid transit through San Mateo County (and presumably on to San Jose).

A plan along these lines was submitted to San Mateo's voters in 1969; with 16% voting, the proposal was defeated by a 4-1 margin, for the same reasons as earlier stated. As a result, the West Bay Rapid Transit Authority expired on June 30, 1969, as per the enabling act.

e. Outlook - The commuter presently has a difficult time gaining access to San Francisco, with the peninsula freeways overcrowded -- the James Lick in particular. While the completion of I-280 may temporarily relieve some of the strain, it is clear that the freeway system alone is inadequate to meet the anticipated doubling in commuters over the next twenty years, particularly since the long-planned Bay Front Freeway will not be built. Although Southern Pacific has tracks which could carry many more people if used to their full capacity (as many as 30,000/hour, compared to the present maximum of 4300/hour), the company has evidenced no inclination to either introduce expanded service or attempt to promote more demand.

In sum, if present trends continue, the freeways will be



major parking lots by 1980; extensive bus service or rapid transit will be imperative if the commuter is to reach his job before quitting time.

#### 6. The Peak Hour Problem

The most striking aspect of the commuter problem is its peaking nature. Consider the westbound traffic on the Bay Bridge, Fig. II-29; the peak hour handles 11.6% of the day's total traffic. In fact, the bridge is carrying traffic at a rate greater than 5,400 cars/hour (equivalent to three lanes) for only two hours of the day, in each direction; this means that two of the five lanes are needed only because of the peaking nature of commuter travel. Although similar data is not available for the peninsula, there is some data for the Golden Gate Bridge. On April 8, 1970, the following traffic count was made:

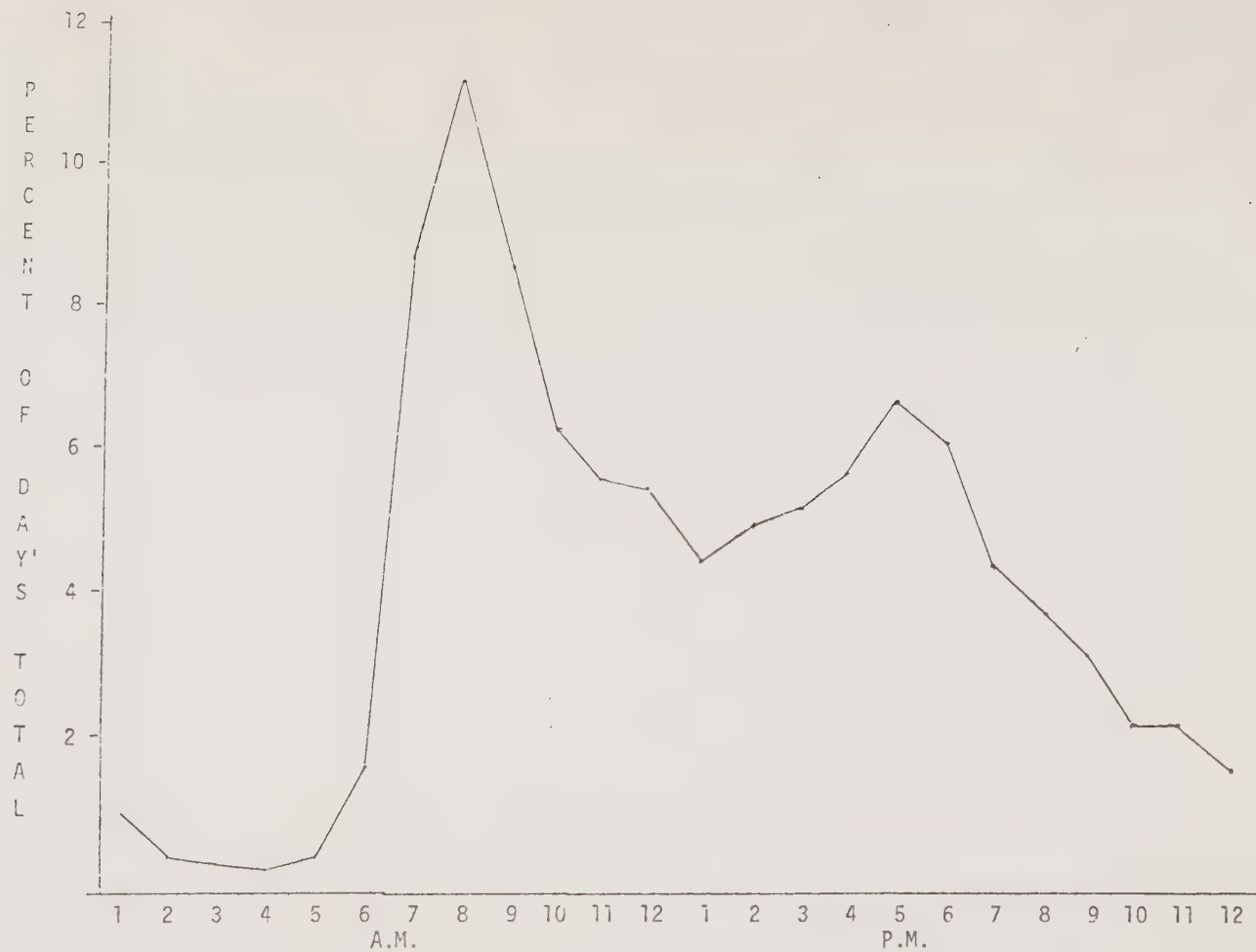
Table II-16  
APRIL 8, 1970 TRAFFIC COUNT  
(Golden Gate Bridge)

<u>Time</u>	<u>Southbound Vehicles</u>
0600-0700	4117
0700-0800	7015
0800-0900	5558

Even within the rush hour there is very definite peaking.

There are two important implications. First, the commuter is being "subsidized" by those who use the roads and bridges during non-peak hours but who, through various user taxes, must pay for capacity utilized for only a limited part of the day. Secondly, it is clear that flattening the peak would materially increase a roadway's utilized capacity.

With respect to the latter, there are several ways of implementing an increase in capacity. Flattening of the peak



Source: University of California, ITTE

Figure II-29. BAY BRIDGE VEHICULAR TRAFFIC COUNT  
Westbound; Tuesday, April 15 (1969)

might be accomplished by a staggering of working hours, or through a variable toll structure. Both have been suggested, and will be discussed in a later section. In addition, an increase in the number of passengers per vehicle would also increase a roadway's "capacity," as demonstrated by comparing peak hour travel over the Bay Bridge (strong bus service) with that over the Golden Gate Bridge (weak bus service). The Bay Bridge has five lanes to the Golden Gate's four, but carries nearly twice as many people in the peak hour.

In order to quantitatively evaluate the relationship of bus service to roadway capacity, the following model was developed for a link which was considered to have two possible modes:

Let  $P_i$  = number of passengers/hour carried by mode  $i$ ,  
 $i = 1, 2$

$u_i$  = average occupancy/vehicle for mode  $i$

$c$  = capacity of the link in vehicles/hour (assumed, slightly erroneously, to be independent of vehicle mode, in order to simplify the analysis)

$C$  = capacity of the link in passengers per hour

Then,

$$\frac{P_1}{u_1} + \frac{P_2}{u_2} = c$$

if  $P_2 = q \cdot P_1$ ,

$$\text{then } c = P_1 \left( \frac{1}{u_1} + \frac{1}{u_2} \right)$$

$$C = P_1 + P_2 \quad \text{by definition}$$

$$C = (1 + q) \frac{c}{\left( \frac{1}{u_1} + \frac{q}{u_2} \right)}$$

The capacity curves for the Golden Gate Bridge (see Appendix) and Bay Bridge, Fig. II-30, were drawn using the above relationship, for various levels of public transportation patronage, with the traffic assumed to consist of private automobiles and public busses which occupy the same amount of space on the bridge. Curves for average automobile occupancy ranging from 1.25 to 2.0 per car, and average bus occupancy ranging from 35 to 65 per bus were drawn for the purpose of sensitivity analysis. For a given public/private ratio, it can be seen that an increase in automobile occupancy from the present level of about 1.5 to 2.0 increases the bridge capacity by at least 20%, while increasing average bus occupancy from 35 to 65 does not significantly increase bridge capacity.

In view of suburbia's love affair with the automobile, it can be hypothesized that almost everyone will commute by car until congestion develops (road and parking); at that time, drivers start switching modes. One case in point is the Bay Bridge, where almost half of the peak hour travel is by bus, compared to less than 10% during the midday hours (Fig. II-31 for AC Transit graph). As the June, 1970 AC Transit strike has shown, bus service is necessary as demand increases.

The foregoing discussion suggests that bridge capacity might be thought of in terms of people, not vehicles, and that the critical parameter is the average occupancy of the vehicles. Clearly, a roadway would be near capacity if it were filled with busses, which today's roads and bridges are not.

Further, one might think of determining the expected people demand for a bridge, say, and then of determining the number of buses which would be needed to serve that demand (assuming as many as possible would take their private autos). The model discussed above can be utilized in



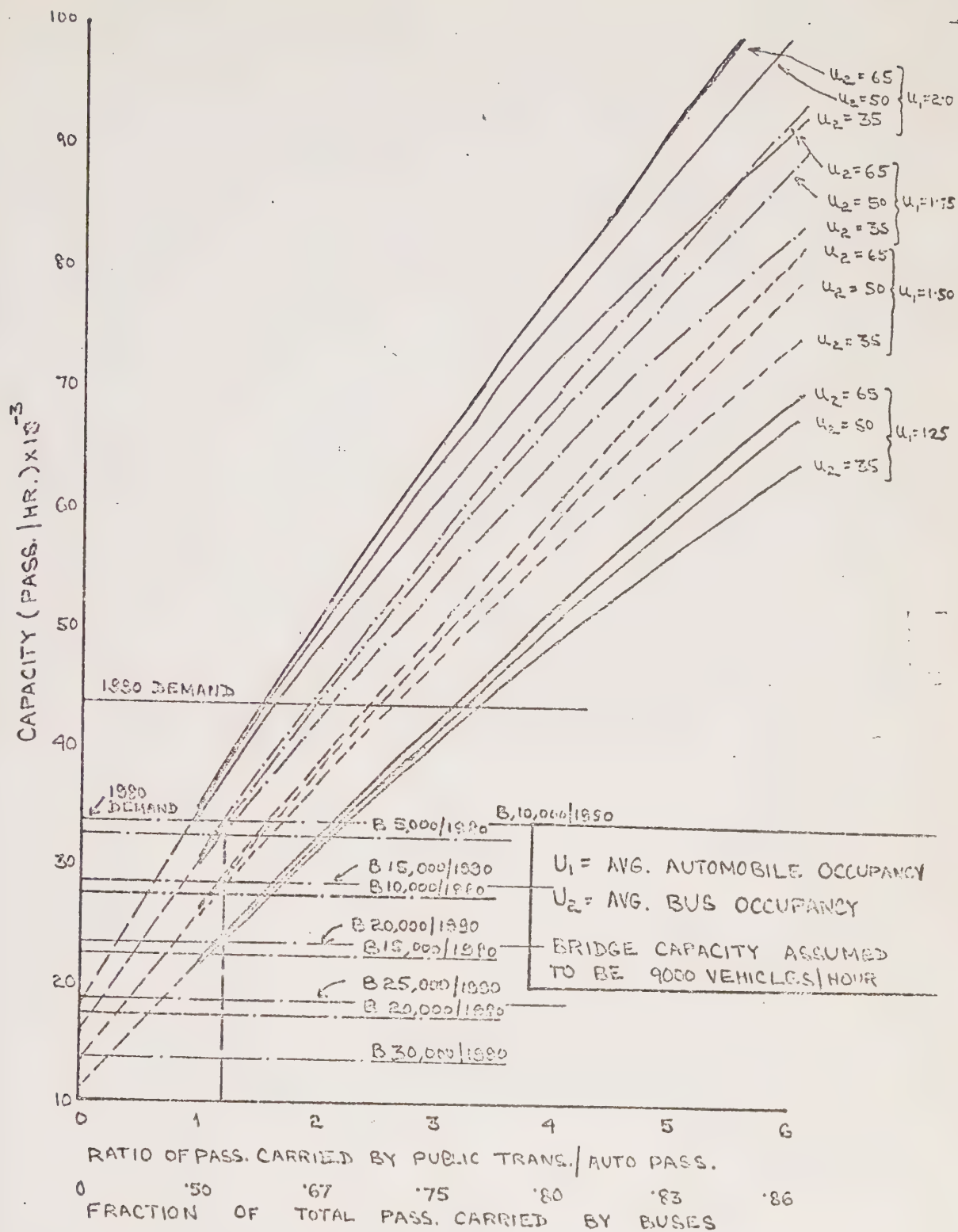
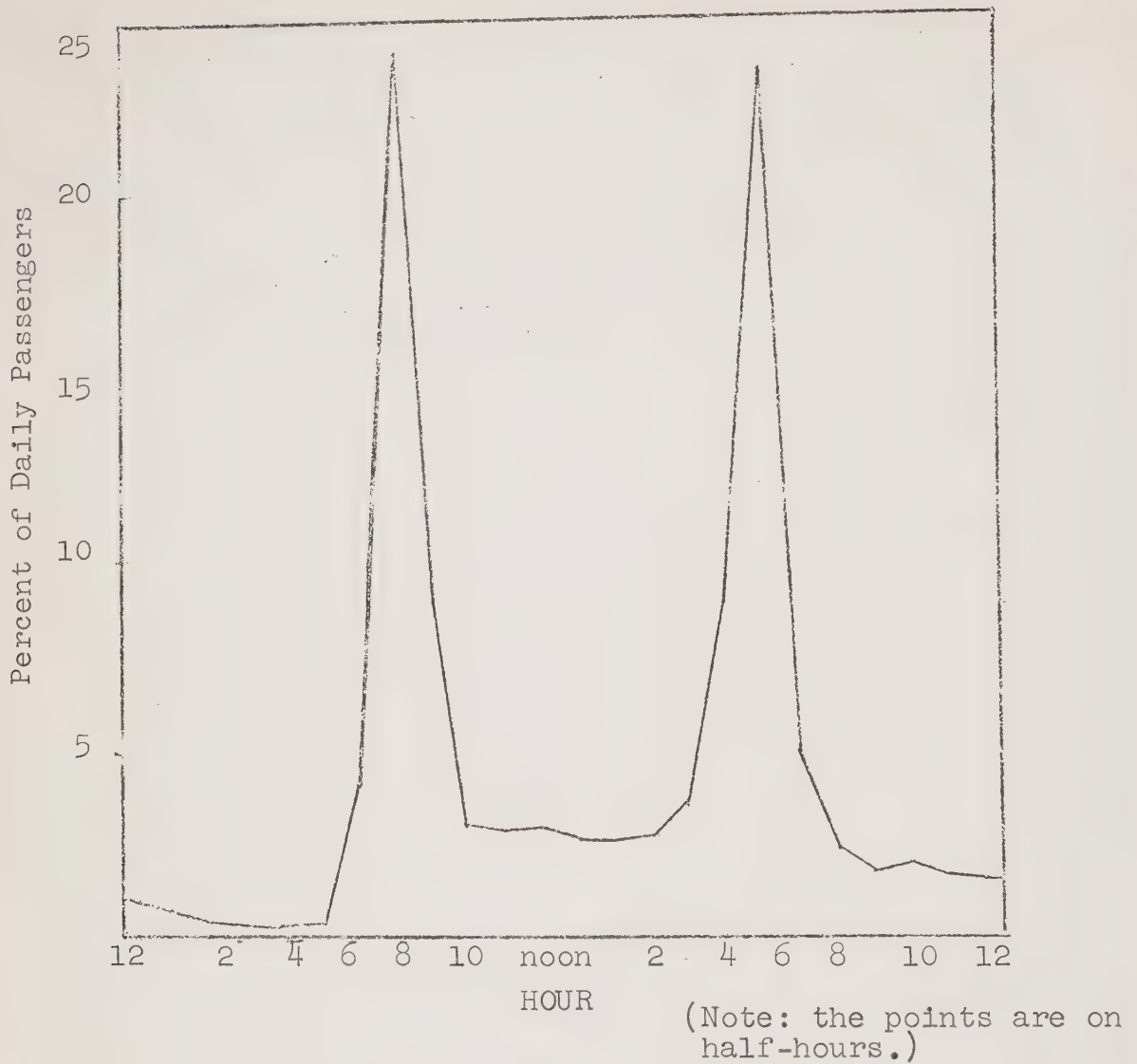


Figure II-30. CAPACITY CURVES-BAY BRIDGE

# Hourly Distribution of Transit Riders



Source: Simpson & Curtin, Coordinated Transit for the San Francisco Bay Area -- Now to 1975,

5/70

Figure II-31. AC TRANSIT GRAPH

this manner; a Bay Bridge graph is found in Fig. II-32, and one for the Golden Gate in the Appendix.

## 7. San Francisco Transportation

San Francisco is a very transit-oriented city; with a yearly ridership in excess of 146 million revenue passengers, its riding habit (revenue trips per capita) of 191.8 is second only to that of New York. Further, although national transit usage has declined over the last decade, in San Francisco it has remained virtually constant. This is due to the rugged topography of San Francisco, which makes automobile traffic difficult, the high residential density of 31 persons/acre, and the relatively low fare. Nevertheless, many residents drive their vehicles to work, for reasons which will be seen.

To begin with, the San Francisco Municipal Railways (Muni) will be examined in detail, followed by some comments on the transportation problems of the CBD, and observations on freight movement. Finally, there will be a brief discussion of the problem of getting passengers, employees, and well-wishers to the airport from San Francisco.

### a. San Francisco Municipal Railway

The San Francisco Municipal Railway is operated by the Public Utilities Commission (PUC) of San Francisco. This section of the report will examine its routes, finances, equipment, outlook, and make some general observations about its operation.

1. Service Provided - A fleet of over 1,000 buses, streetcars, electric trolley coaches, and cable cars operate over 62 lines covering 693 line miles (Fig. II-33), see appendix for more detail information on service). Eight of these are express, nine are limited stop, and two are shoppers' shuttles. The major purpose of Muni is to get commuters to and from the CBD; of the 53 routes operated in 1965,

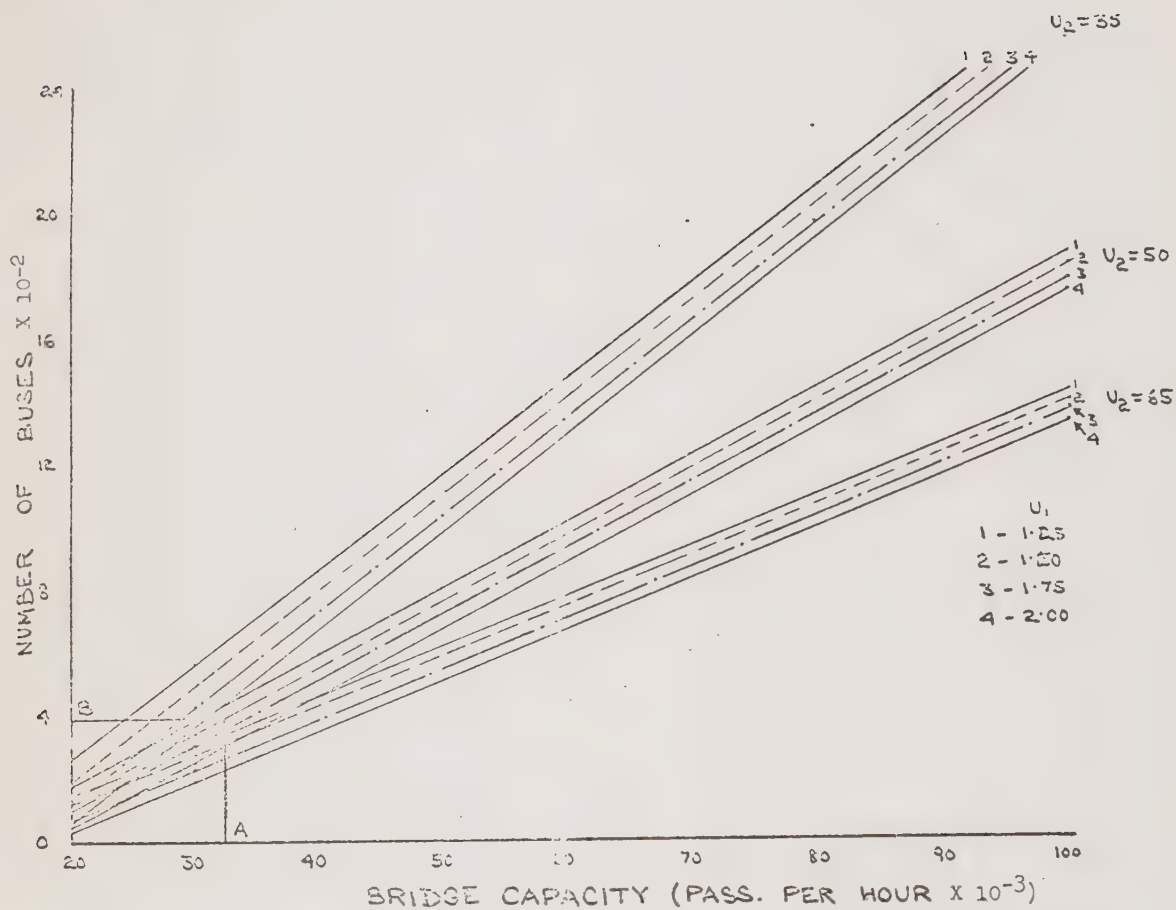


Figure II-32. BUS REQUIREMENTS vs. CAPACITY  
Bay Bridge



# SAN FRANCISCO MUNICIPAL RAILWAY STREETCAR AND COACH ROUTES

Circled figures and letters show terminal points  
For Information Please Call 558-4111

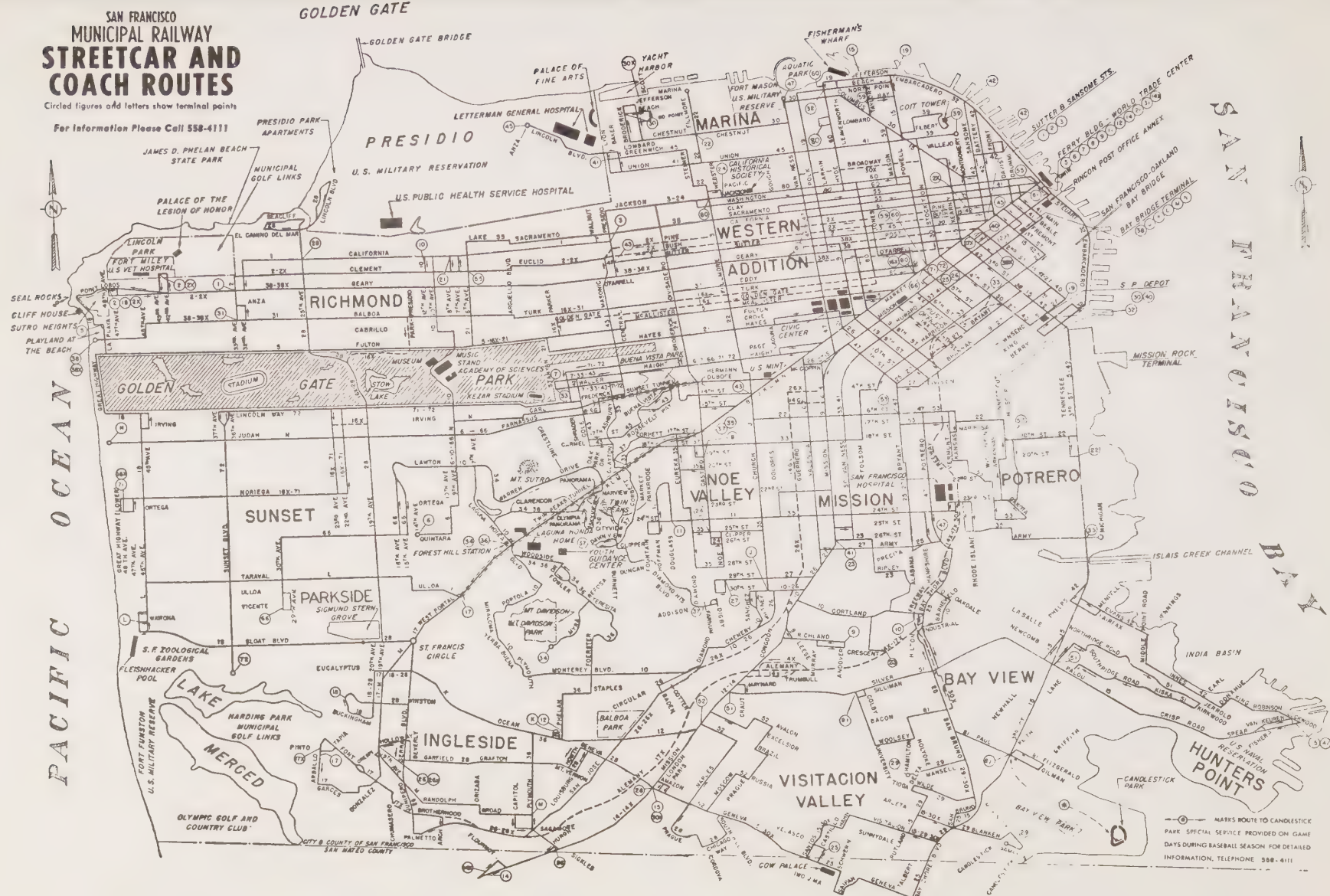


Figure II-33. SAN FRANCISCO MUNICIPAL RAILWAY, STREETCAR, AND COACH ROUTES

34 were radial, downtown-oriented routes, with seven cross-town routes which connect the arterials and twelve feeder routes, which are either shuttles or connections to arterials. Further, of the 409,000 adult passengers daily, more than half board or alight in the CBD, and 70% of Muni trips are work related (Table II-17). Despite the fact that daily people do take Muni to work in the morning, it is still faster for most commuters to drive into the CBD (Table II-18). This is because of waiting times and the large number of stops which Muni vehicles must make for loading and unloading, which helps lower their overall average speed to roughly 10 miles per hour. During the peak hour (4:30 P.M. - 5:30 P.M.), almost half (45.7%) of the people leaving downtown do so by mass transit, although 98% of the vehicles on the street are taxis or private automobiles.

The Muni also provides special services. For instance, special service is provided for the schools, where students are charged only 5¢. Over 65,000 students use this service on a typical day, and there are also some other school charters. There is also a senior citizen's fare between 10 and 3 on weekdays, and all day on weekends. Shopper's shuttles operate during the same period downtown with a 10¢ fare. Extra services are also provided for sports events, holiday events, etc.

One very noteworthy program has been the Transportation Assistant Program, whereby operator-trainees ride along on certain routes with the purpose of maintaining order and preventing crime or dangerous mischief. This effort has been very successful, not only in lowering the crime rate and restoring safety to the worst routes, but also by providing experience and employment for a number of previously unemployed minority-group members. Unfortunately, the program has been discontinued at the present time because of a lack of funds.

Table II-17  
TRIP PURPOSE OF MUNI RIDERS

Purpose	Percent
Work	70.8%
Shopping	7.6%
Personal Business	11.2%
Social & Recreational	4.8%
Other	5.6%
	<u>100.0%</u>

Source: Northern California Transit Demonstration Project,  
Coordinated Transit for the San Francisco Bay Area-  
Now to 1975, Table 8.

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Table II-18  
COMPARATIVE TRAVEL TIMES TO  
DOWNTOWN SAN FRANCISCO

Based on 171 Zones  
in San Francisco

	Minutes Saved	No. of Zones	Cumulative No. of Zones	Cumulative Percentage
Transit	10 - 6	2	2	1.2%
Better	5 - 1	17	19	11.1
Even	0	5	24	14.0
Auto	1 - 5	22	46	26.9
Better	6 - 10	35	81	47.3
	11 - 15	34	115	67.2
	16+	56	171	100.0

Source: Simpson & Curtin, Fig. 18.

Table II-19  
MUNICIPAL RAILWAY EQUIPMENT INVENTORY

Type	Peak Schedule Needs	Avail. Vehicle	Spares
Street Cars	100	105	5
Cable Cars	26	37	11
Trolley Coaches	287	332	45
Motor Coaches	437	583	146

Source: Schedule and Traffic Department, Municipal Railway,  
Fact Sheet; September 25, 1969.



2. Equipment - The present inventory of Muni equipment is seen in Table II-19. At the present time, the railway is in the process of acquiring 200 new diesel buses to replace the more worn and aged vehicles among their fleet of motor coaches and trolley coaches. The latter will eventually be phased out in favor of the more economical and flexible motor buses. Cable cars, though quite expensive to maintain and operate, can be expected to remain in service indefinitely due to their public appeal and unique character. The street car system, though antiquated in concept, will actually increase in importance as it is modified to become part of the new Muni Rapid/BARTD system (see Outlook, no. 4 of this section). Muni is purchasing a fleet of specially designed "articulated" rail vehicles which are 72 feet long with an ability to bend in the middle to negotiate curves and turns. These will operate as single cars on the residential routes and couple together into two and three car trains for the Market Street "trunk line," as is done somewhat now by the Boston Municipal Transit Authority.

3. Finances - Burdened by a 15¢ fare in effect since June, 1952, the Muni had the following deficits:

Table II-20  
MUNI DEFICITS

<u>Fiscal Year</u>	<u>Amount</u>
1961	\$6.0 million
1965	8.0 "
1968	12.0 "
1969	17.4 "

The Muni's fare, even at the 20¢ level to which it was raised to start fiscal year 1970, is one of the lowest in the country, while the basic wage rate, which has risen more than 25% in three years, is one of the nation's highest. The deficit, which amounted to 11.9¢ per revenue passenger in

fiscal 1969, is paid for out of the city's general funds. Indeed, of the fiscal 1970 tax rate of \$12.290 per \$100 assessed value, \$0.893 was for the deficit (at the same time, the BART rate was \$0.605). Tolerance of such high deficit levels by the Board of Supervisors is because of their stated policy to encourage transit use; however, the matter of a fare increase is again (June, 1970) before the Board of Supervisors.

Several interesting tables on the operations of Muni appear in this report. Highlights include the importance of the labor cost in overall expenses, and the present unimportance (because of antiquated equipment) of equipment cost; the high expense of cable car operation (net income of \$ -3.615/mile vs. an average of \$ -0.60 for the rest of the system); and the greater losses incurred by feeder/shuttle service compared to arterial service (crosstown routes fall in between).

The latter fact is important when the advent of BART is considered. At that time, Muni will probably relinquish some of its arterial passengers to BART, and substitute feeder passengers for them. This may well lead to a requirement for higher fares and/or larger subsidies for Muni.

4. Outlook - By 1973 BART will be in full operation (Fig. II-34), which will have considerable impact on Muni; as part of that system, the Muni streetcar lines are being upgraded to "Muni Rapid" (see system map, Fig. II-35). On Market Street, BART will be on the lower level of a subway and Muni on the upper level. Combined with newer equipment capable of higher speeds, the avoidance of Market Street congestion will materially increase the attractiveness of the streetcar system by cutting travel times (Table II-20). At the same time that streetcar traffic is increasing, Muni will be under pressure to provide more adequate feeder service both to BART and Muni Rapid. (It is expected that 65% of BART riders will reach the system by way of Muni or AC Transit.)



Figure II-34. BART BY 1975





Table II-21  
COMPARISON OF RUNNING TIMES  
MONTGOMERY & MARKET STREETS TO OUTER TERMINALS  
EVENING RUSH HOUR

Line No.	Present Time	Muni Rapid Time	Savings
J	29.5 min.	19 min.	10.5 min.
K	41	25	16
L	44.5	30	14.5
M	46	30	16
N	42.5	32.5	10

5. Critique - Despite antiquated equipment, the Municipal Railway is able to supply reasonable service to those traveling to and from the CBD for working purposes (90% of San Francisco residents live within two blocks of a Muni line). However, Muni is not very successful in the public relations arena.

For example, the stops are not as well marked as they might be, and average resident has no idea of the headways between vehicles at off-peak hours, even though the drivers do have a schedule to which they are expected to rigidly adhere. This is particularly crucial during the evening hours, when potential riders worry about long waits at the bus stop. One plus for management, however, is the new color scheme of maroon and gold, which is quite attractive and certainly visible.

Another area in which management seems to lack the necessary skills is equipment utilization. For example, the present inventory of vehicles shows a 30% margin of motor coaches over peak hour requirements -- far too high to be justified by maintenance needs, which should be done during off-peak hours anyway. Apparently, many of the motor coaches are being "cannibalized" for spare parts, particularly the new ones which were originally ordered with no provision made for any spares. Further, one would think that equipment might be utilized in the off-peak by schools for charters; while there is some of this, AC Transit has a major contract to provide this service for San Francisco schools. This puts San Francisco in the rather curious position of helping to support AC Transit at the expense (to the taxpayer) of increasing the Muni deficit.

## 8. Freeways

San Francisco's freeways are clearly seen in Fig. II-36. More were originally planned. Among them the Golden Gate Freeway (between a to-be-completed Embarcadero Freeway

# COMMUTE CORRIDORS



Figure II-36. SAN FRANCISCO FREEWAYS

and the Golden Gate Bridge), the Central Freeway (Golden Gate Freeway to present Skyline), the Crosstown Freeway (Southern Freeway to Park Presidio Freeway), and Park Presidio Freeway through Golden Gate Park to the Golden Gate Bridge. However, public pressure in the late 1950's brought about a 1959 Board of Supervisors' announcement that none of these routes would be built.

At the same time, however, there are still certain freeway routes in San Francisco which are under consideration. For example, the city is still searching for a freeway connection between the Bay Bridge and the Golden Gate Bridge, and/or between the peninsula and the Golden Gate. In 1963, the Board expressed an interest in a Pacific Heights "Crosstown" Tunnel route, which would go directly from the Turk Street terminus of the Central Freeway to the Richardson Avenue approach to the Golden Gate.

There has also been wide consideration given to an Embarcadero route. At the present time, the Embarcadero is unfinished, and what there is of it is a blight on the San Francisco skyline. One proposal calls for knocking down the present structure and putting the entire route at least partially underground, and thereby connecting the two bridges (at a cost of \$300 million). Pressure for this route will increase as the Southern Freeway is finally linked to the Bay Bridge in about 1975.

The other route still being considered is the Hunter's Point Expressway, as shown in Fig. II-37. While this statute is often presented as part of the Southern Crossing package, it stands on its own merits; it would relieve Hunter's Point of much truck traffic and make the area more attractive for the kind of industry that area needs. It would be at ground level, through presently unpopulated areas.

Aside from these two problem areas, however, the city has dropped consideration of freeways as a solution to its transportation problem.



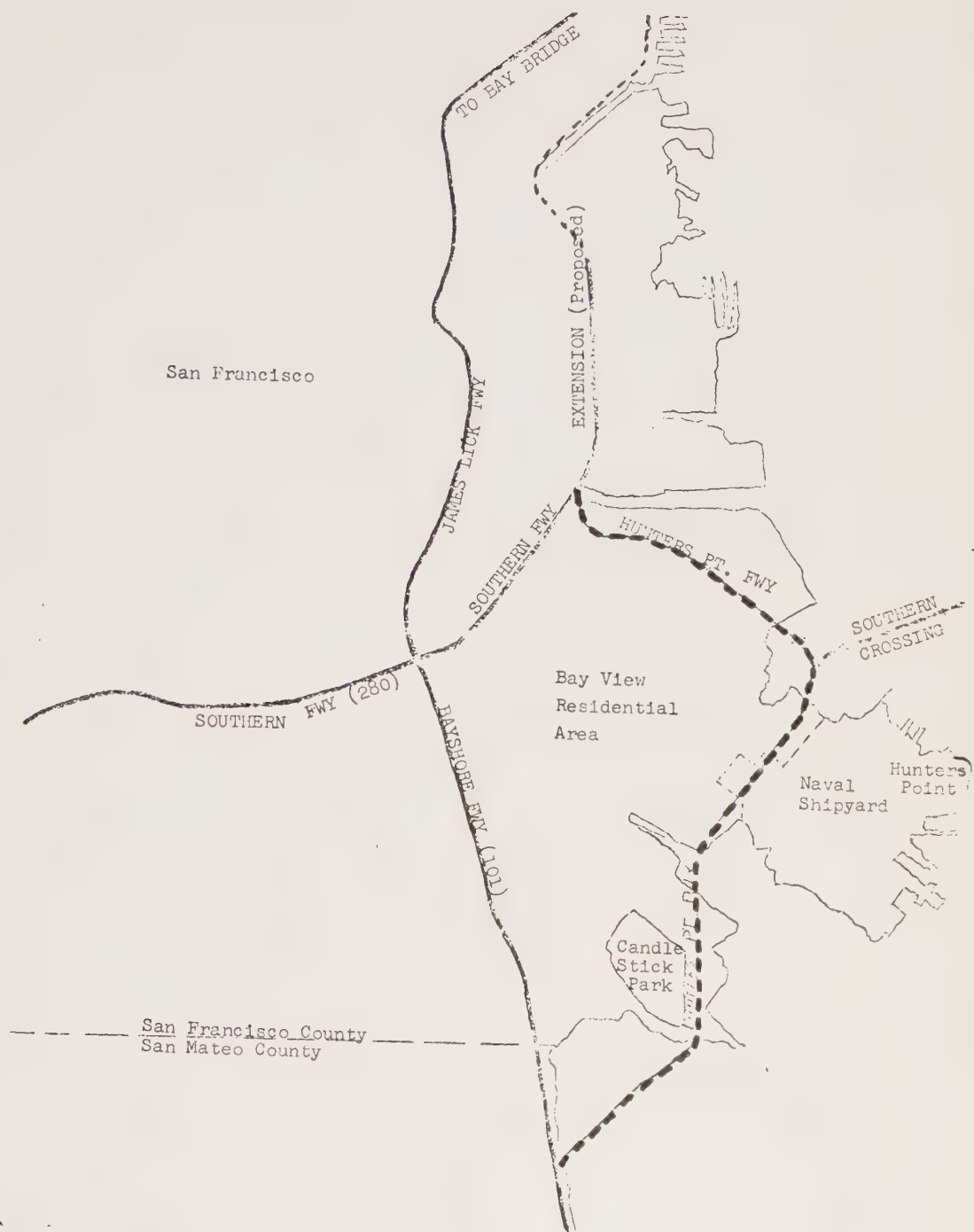


Figure II-37. PROPOSED HUNTER'S POINT FREEWAY

## 9. Central Business District

San Francisco's CBD (Fig. II-38) is the larger generator/recipient of person-trips in the Bay Area. At the present time, roughly 70% of the people entering the area during the day do so by private automobile, but during rush hour the percentage drops to 55%. More significantly, between 1959 and 1965 there was a 2.4% decrease in the number of vehicles leaving the CBD during the evening peak hour, and a 12.4% increase in those leaving by mass transit.

It is of some interest to consider the purpose of vehicular trips into this area (Table II-22). In total, workers tended to take mass transit into the CBD (62%), while those on shopping and personal business preferred the automobile (75%).

A further statistic to consider is that 25% of the vehicular trips were wholly within the study area, indicating much communication between businesses (an argument against staggering working hours very significantly). Many of them were for short duration; the Downtown Parking and Traffic Survey (DPATS) found in 1965-66 that 40% of the parkers remained for less than 40 minutes, indicating a very mobile situation.

Along with Muni and private automobiles, taxicabs provide service for the area. San Francisco has one of the country's less plentiful and more expensive taxi systems (Tab. II-23), as the number of taxicabs is regulated by the city. One proposal considered by this project was for "public vehicles"--taxicabs which would be driven by the user, thus eliminating much of the labor cost while allowing personal service. However, there are vehicle distribution and security problems with such a system.

Two corridors in the area of interest are Market Street itself and Southern Pacific (Third and Townsend, not on map) to Market Street, both of which will be discussed in great detail in the recommendations section of the study.

Vehicular traffic in general is quite congested in the

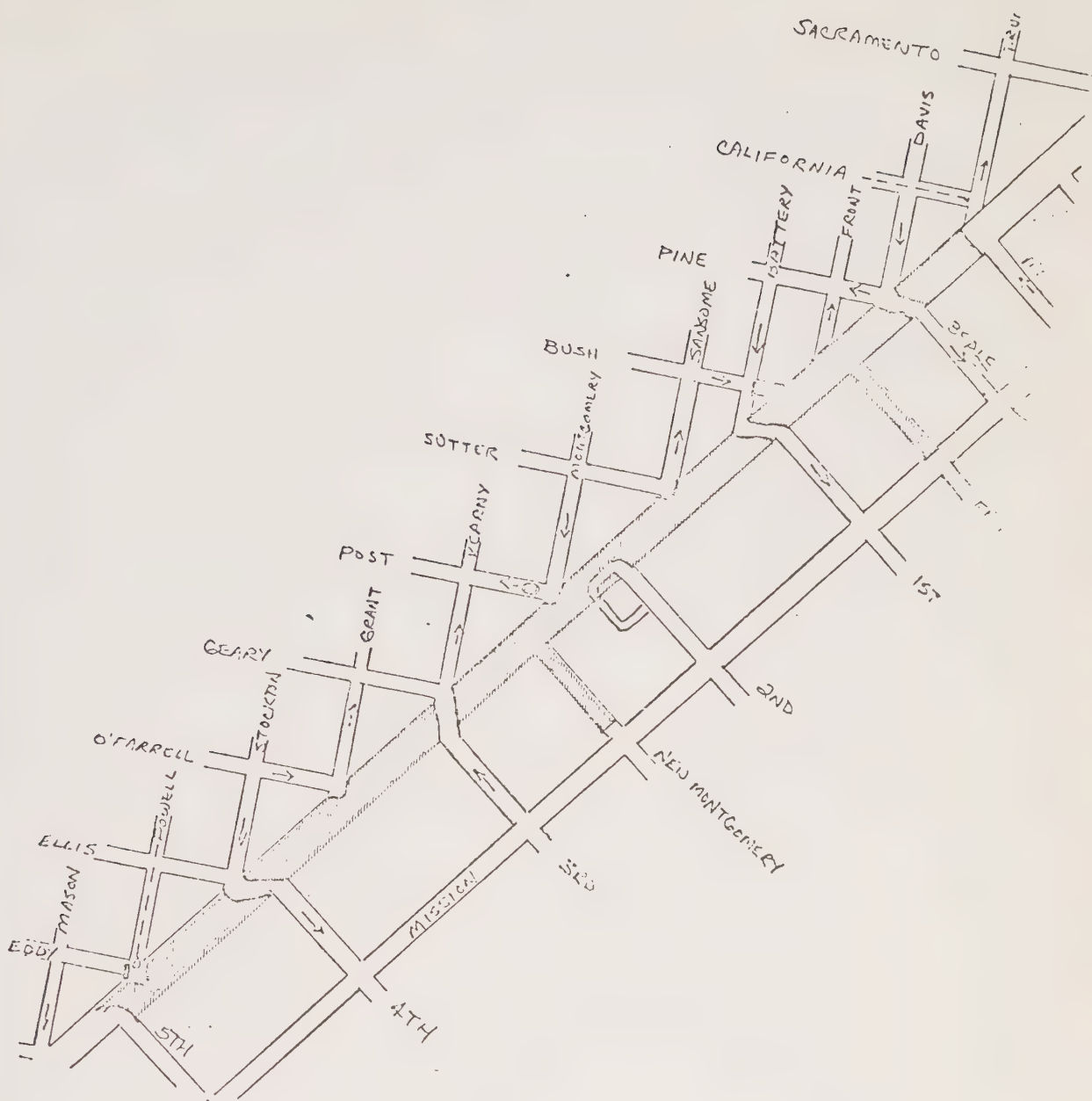


Figure II-38. SAN FRANCISCO'S  
CENTRAL BUSINESS DISTRICT

Table II-22  
TRIP PURPOSE  
VEHICULAR TRIPS TO THE SURVEY AREA

<u>Trip Purpose (Auto and Truck)</u>	<u>Percent of Trips</u>
Work	34.6
Business visiting, sales and service	32.5
Freight loading and unloading	10.2
Shopping	9.0
Social	4.6
Medical or Dental	1.5
Miscellaneous	7.6

Source: Downtown Parking and Traffic Survey, 1965-1966



Table II-23  
COMPARATIVE TAXICAB DATA

Washington, D.C.	200	zoned fares
New York	650	45¢/1st. 1/5 10¢/addl. 1/5
Newark, N.J.	733	
Chicago	785	40¢/1st. 1/5 10¢/addl. 1/5
Baltimore	825	
Philadelphia	985	45¢/1st. 1/4 10¢/addl. 1/4
Los Angeles	1,010	50¢/1st. 1/5 10¢/addl. 1/5
San Francisco	1,060	50¢/1st. 1/5 10¢/addl. 1/5

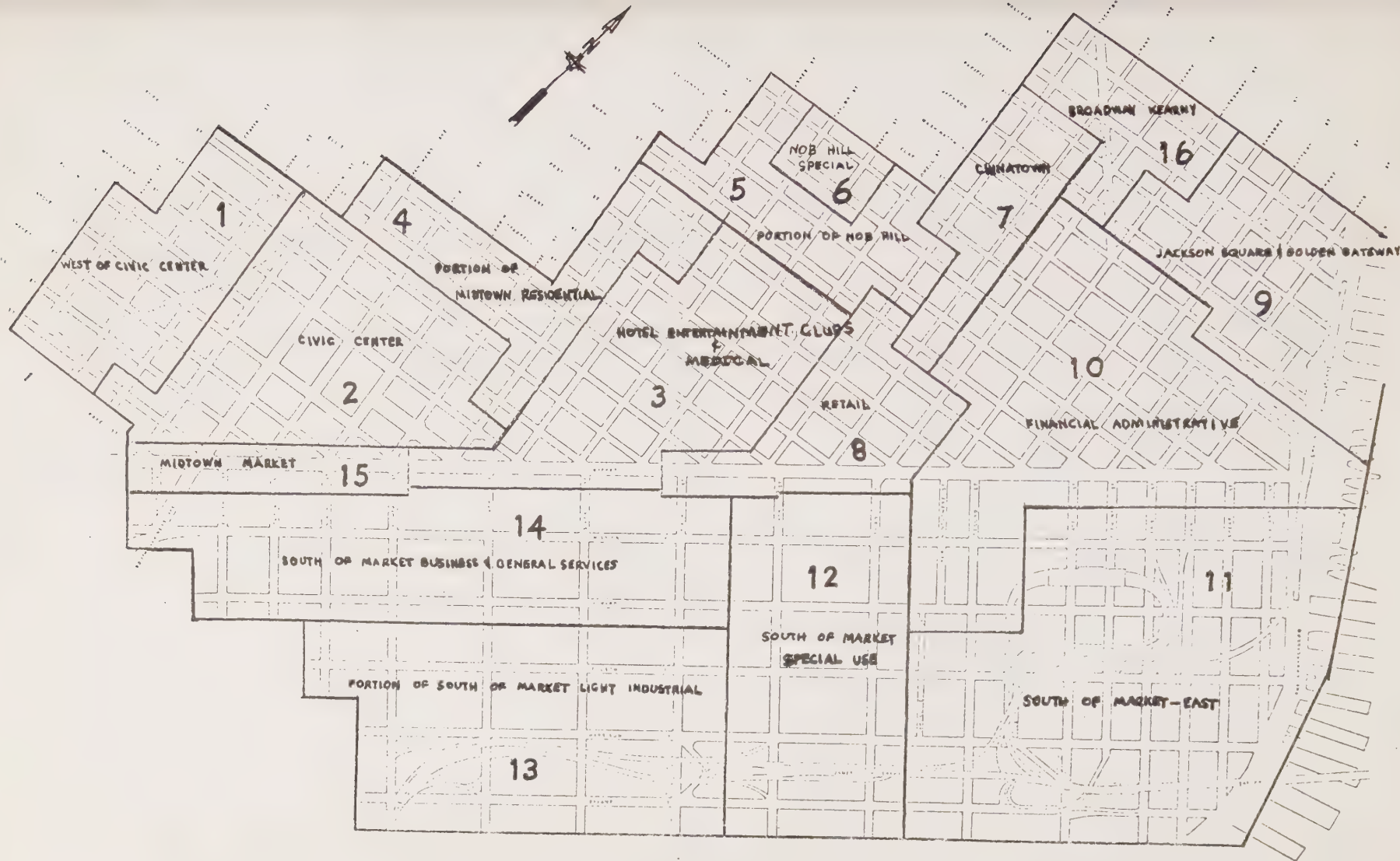
Source: Taxi Topics (1966)

area. In an attempt to alleviate this condition, the Chamber of Commerce has introduced a plan to establish towaway zones on certain key, one-way streets, and to add more loading zones for trucks. This will at once make driving easier (by removing trucks which are presently blocking lanes) while making parking more difficult (by eliminating spaces, some of which are "returned" at 1 P.M.). Further recommendations and discussion on this subject will be found in the proposals section.

#### 10. Freight Movement

It is difficult to obtain an accurate measure of freight movement in the city; however, there are some statistics available on the subject. There are 47,720 commercial vehicles registered in the city of San Francisco, and some 3,200 local freight carriers. As DPATS points out, truck traffic is extremely important to the city because all goods and industrial products moving in the city are ultimately handled by trucks. Within the CBD (Fig. II-39), 37,000 commercial vehicles require parking between 10 A.M. and 6 P.M. on an average workday. 42% of these are engaged in loading or unloading freight while parked, and 80% of these latter vehicles are parked for less than thirty minutes. It is of some interest to note that almost half of the drivers have to walk less than fifty feet from their truck to the delivery/pick up location.

It seems that many of these trucks are picking up and delivering only small volumes at every stop; these small shipments must ultimately sum up to the city's total needs, requiring many trips. Elimination of many of these trips by having a single freight carrier handle all small volume shipments would do much to ease the downtown traffic problem. This concept will be further developed in a later section of the report.



Source: Functional Areas Defined by the Department of City Planning Staff  
 Figure II-39. DOWNTOWN PARKING & TRAFFIC SURVEY (DPATS) FUNCTIONAL AREAS

11. San Francisco - San Francisco International Airport

San Francisco International Airport is second only to San Francisco's CBD as the Bay Area's largest traffic generator; a total of more than 65,000 person-trips originate there each day (1967), and this figure is expected to more than double over the next twenty years. Presently, 90% of those trips are by auto, with 25% of them destined for San Francisco (20% for East San Francisco).

It is clear to all observers that the present highway network is incapable of handling the expected increase in demand which, according to current studies, is constrained not by runway capacity but by a lack of adequate access to the facility. While this was true even when the Bay Front Freeway was expected to be built, it is particularly true now.

Interest is presently centered around an extension of BARTD from Daly City to the airport. There are two reasons for this: 1) to improve airport access (there will be an air passenger terminal in Yerba Buena); and 2) to get BARTD started down the peninsula, where it has met opposition from San Mateo's voters. At the present time, a \$350,000 engineering study concerning routes and feasibility has just been awarded; a recent Stanford Graduate School of Business study suggested the route shown in the Appendix. This subject will be discussed again in the proposals section of the report.



## F. COMMUNITY SERVICES

### I. Introduction

The community services group is concerned with evaluating the current organizational structures, scope of operation, needs of the community, and future growth of the social services, law enforcement, employment services, education, and fire departments.

#### 1. Social Services

Personnel - Because of inadequate funds, the Department of Social Services is working with a bare minimum of staff to carry out the welfare programs. To insure that the recipients receive financial assistance it has been necessary to use service workers to assist the eligibility clerks in determining financial grants. This condition should last through fiscal year 1971, since the Department budget request has been reduced by about \$30,000,000.

Management in the Department of Social Services is currently faced with a personnel crisis. Because of a reassignment of duties which separates the eligibility determination from the social services function, some of the employees are disgruntled because they have been downgraded. Resulting from this reorganization has been a number of legal actions by the employees and a work slow-down by at least a few of the employees. Below are the social worker positions which are employed by the Department of Social Services.

New Careerest - Supervised by the City Civil Service. These people are the hard core unemployed people who work and receive training in equal proportions. About 12 New Careerest workers are used to help clients concerning locating housing, money management, etc.

Eligibility Clerks - About 300 Eligibility Clerks perform the functions of taking an application for assistance, determining the amount of cash grants, and redeterminations of eligibility. They are primarily fiscal clerks dealing with

finance rather than services.

Service Workers - Personnel of this type are to perform the service functions. Currently, because of high workloads and lack of funds, some of the social workers have been performing tasks to be handled by the Eligibility Clerks. The Eligibility Clerk position is a new position and has been filled gradually over the past two years. As of June 30, 1969 the staff consisted of 658 social workers, 134 1st line supervisors, 671 administrative, accounting, clerical, etc. workers. This totals 1,463 workers.

Although the service worker position does not provide for fiscal responsibility, the Department of Social Services has not used "social services" nearly enough. Studies indicate that a very high percentage of the welfare clients need services as well as financial assistance. Adequate social services simply have not been provided by the Department of Social Services.

Welfare Payments - Payments to welfare recipients are barely enough to provide a minimum subsistence. The amount of payment made to families with dependent children are especially of a meager amount. Backloads, especially for aid to the disabled, have been delayed beyond the statutory time limit, which has resulted in delayed payments as well as personnel use problems in the Department. Federal regulations must be met in order to receive the full proportion of federal support. Some of the shortcuts used to process grants-in-aid have resulted in situations bordering on losing federal support.

Welfare Dependency - Current programs encourage continued dependency on welfare programs. Many of the clients simply do not care to seek employment and rely on their welfare checks. In addition, the program for employment training of welfare recipients has been drastically curtailed by the Department of Labor and Education.

It has been speculated that a majority of welfare recipients are school dropouts. Arguments have been presented by welfare personnel that the elimination of "dropouts" from educational establishments probably would reduce the welfare rolls 50% or more of what they are today.

Employment Potentials for Recipients - The Department of Social Services is responsible for the Educational Training and Rehabilitation Services (ETRS), which is to assist and motivate public assistance recipients toward improvement in functioning, social adjustment, and toward self support. This basically is accomplished through the Work Incentive Program (WIN), and through and ETRS program which is for public assistant recipients not eligible for the WIN program due to the fact that WIN has limited capabilities.

The WIN program is actually utilized at the operational level by the Department of Labor which uses both public welfare and state employment services in carrying out the program. Because of limited staff and training facilities the ETRS Program has only 300 people enrolled during fiscal year 1970, resulting in unmet training needs of at least 2,000. Enrollment in WIN has been curtailed upon request of the California Department of Employment. It is apparent that the WIN program has not come close to attaining its desired results.

Reference is also made to the need for more and better day care centers. Reading matter and public contacts indicate that most mothers receiving assistance are willing to seek employment provided their children are adequately cared for. Daycare centers are therefore viewed as incentives to reduce employment, and consequently reduce the number of recipients dependent on the welfare system.

Location - Presently the Department of Social Services is housed in five different buildings in the downtown area. All services are not available at any one building. For

example, a person needs one type of aid, but goes to the wrong building, he might then have to walk to another building which may be 12 to 15 blocks away. In addition, since the Department of Social Services is centralized, people seeking their assistance must go to the downtown area.

Emergency Services - Under current procedures, money, food, and rent quarters can be immediately given to a person who qualifies for assistance payments. However, expedited benefits and/or food and rent orders can not be given to those individuals who are applying for welfare on the basis that they are disabled, the premise being that the disability must be established before any funds can be released.

Along this same area, the Department of Social Services has a housing coordinator who is responsible for locating emergency housing. This individual works with a fund that is of meager proportions and many people must be referred to flop houses on an emergency basis.

Training Program for New Employees - The Department of Social Services provides new employees with from 420 to 440 hours of orientation. However, apparently, a great deal of time is spent on staff development and in service training. Because of the procedures that must be learned and the psychology that must be applied when dealing with clients, the three week orientation period does not appear to be adequate. This is supported by reports that extensive in-service "on the job" training approximately equals the amount of training given to orient and induct new personnel. During the fiscal year 1968-69 about 30,000 man hours were spent in an orientation-induction program. This means that about 15 man years were spent in this phase. In 1968-69 115 new employees were hired.

Chinatown - The caseload for the Chinatown area accounts for about 5.5% of the total San Francisco Social Services



caseload. During the period of August, 1968 to March, 1969, the caseload for this area rose 14%, compared to a city-wide increase of less than 8%.

Chinatown's primary social service needs relate to three groups -- the elderly, segments of the youth, and those households whose income and employment characteristics make them marginally eligible under present regulations. Of these groups, only the elderly are presently eligible for financial assistance; this category (which exceeded the city-wide average) is presently the largest in the Chinatown caseload totals. The Aid for Dependent Children (AFDC) caseload accounts for only about 2% of the AFDC caseload.

Payments - The U.S. Congress is currently considering legislation that would provide for federal handling through a new federal agency of certain guaranteed payments to families in need. A minimum payment of \$90.00 would be made to adult recipients whose present monthly minimum vary from state to state, but are usually lower than the minimum stated above. In effect, the bill establishes the principle that government should guarantee every family a minimum annual income, even if one or more of the family members work. The probability that this bill will be enacted is high at the present time, however, some adjustments in the payment amount are likely.

The effect that this particular bill will have on welfare departments is uncertain at this time. It is apparent, however, that in the next twenty years, the U.S. will guarantee the right that all families should have income sufficient to meet their necessities. We, therefore, assume that the payment of welfare checks will be handled by the federal government and this function will no longer rest with individual state welfare departments.

By dispensing with the function of those employees now engaged in determining the eligibility and the amount of

grant for the old age security, aid to the blind, and aid to the disabled, the staff of the San Francisco Department of Social Services could be reduced by about 200 employees. The yearly cost associated with those employees responsible for determining the eligibility plus the amount of preparing and mailing the monthly checks is about 1.75 million dollars. Of this total, more than \$800,000 represents San Francisco funds alone. During the fiscal year 1968-69 more than \$20,000,000 was dispersed under the Old Age Relief Program, \$14,000,000 under Aid to the Disabled, and \$1,300,000 Aid to the Blind.

Payments made by a new administration will be supplemented by the State Department of Welfare. Therefore, the function of determining eligibility for financial assistance will continue at a reduced rate.

Future prospects are that eventually the Department of Social Services will be solely in the service business. It is hoped that an effective services program can be provided when this state is attained.

## 2. Law Enforcement

Introduction - In the first phase of the project major problems in law enforcement were identified and an initial investigation of solutions was begun. The major goal of the second phase was to examine the community services involved with public safety (police, sheriff) and to determine how they are matched to the needs of the people in the community. The major emphasis during the second phase was interviewing representative active community groups on the one hand and law enforcement officials on the other in order to evaluate the pertinence of those current and projected problems and solutions suggested in the area guidelines of the Phase I effort. During Phase II the premise was adopted that the establishment of a policy of prevention and meeting the needs of the community should be the primary

goals of the police department and the examination of police structure and operations has focused on the extent to which these goals are being met. This premise in turn amplified the importance of identifying the police role in society. As a result of the interim reports and other forms of investigation, overall alternative proposals were elicited and a minimum composite picture of police-community interaction was drawn by age, ethnic background, economic structure, and comparative geography.

During Phase III, the alternative proposals were examined, conclusions drawn, and the composite picture of police-community interactions finalized. An analysis of needs and requirements for public safety vs. police service served as a predictive baseline for future projections of the police-crime-populace picture. More on proposals and recommendations will be given in section III of this report.

The major areas considered in constructing a basis for evaluating the law enforcement system are:

- 1) community interface including community-police friction, poor laws, and loss of police support;
- 2) crimes against persons and crimes against property largely characterized as crimes in the street;
- 3) consolidation of the jails and the effects of such on the sheriff's department; and
- 4) police organizational structure and technology.

A perspective of the community's needs and requirements was developed in several different ways:

- a) analyzing the manifestation of pressure groups to public officials,
- b) attending community meetings,
- c) determining the police viewpoint of what the people want,
- d) statistical analysis of negative indications such as Part I crimes, (crimes against person and crimes against property,
- e) determining through interviews and informal conversations the personal feelings of various

community segments as related to circumstances such as age, ethnic background, etc., and

- f) by study and review of police service based on tradition and circumstances.

The specific areas of the report cover several geographic and demographic areas: Sunset, Western Addition, Mission, Sunnydale, and Hunter's Point.

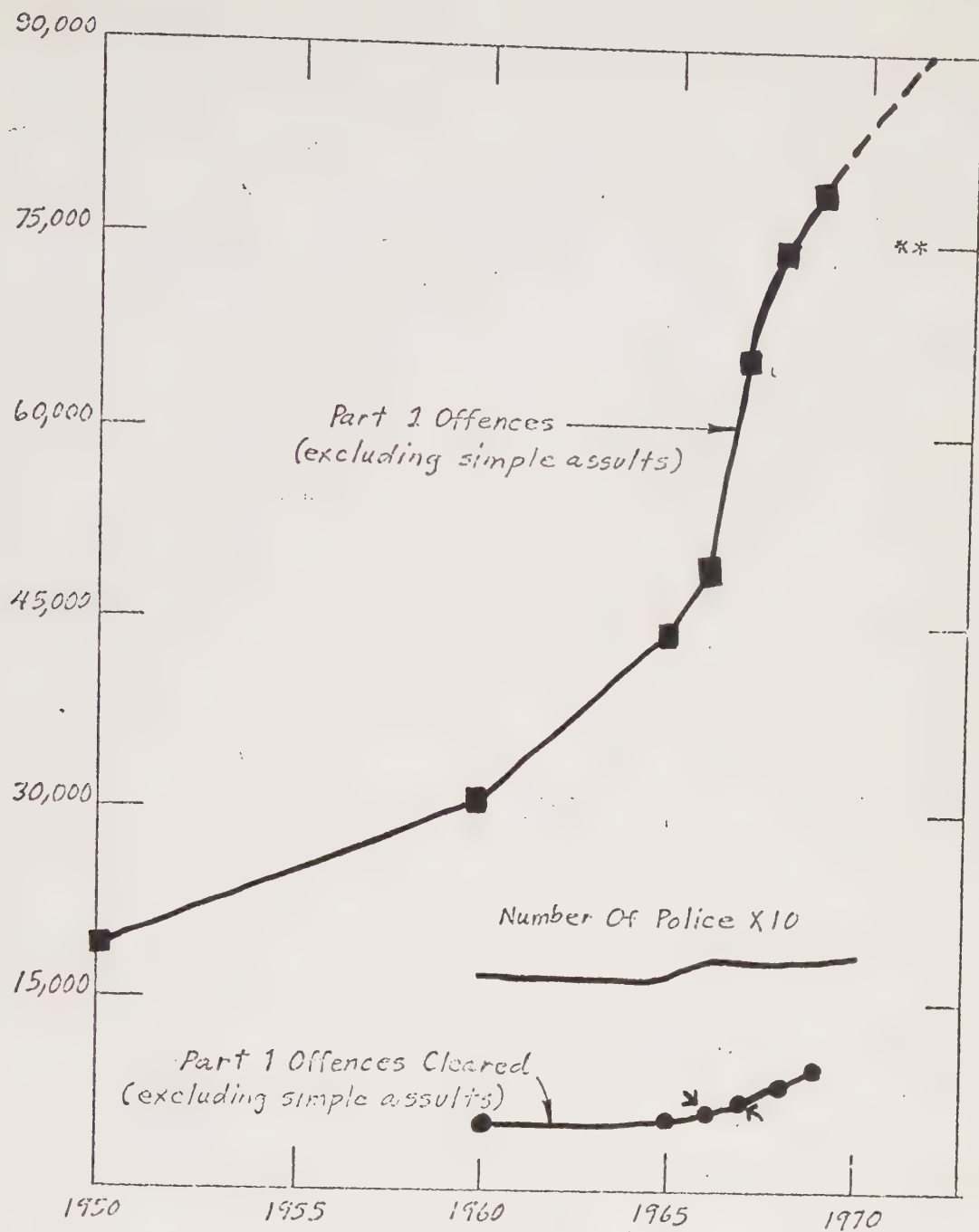
History of Police and Perspective - There are many fallacies in the current attempts to control crime by enlarging the police force. Historically police forces originated as watchmen or were organized to control riots. The emergence of the idea of police as crime fighters is a comparatively recent one. The original function of police was to keep order, i.e., to stop domestic squabbles and fights, remove drunks from the streets, and end brawls. Many of the means formally used by the police to affect these ends have been usurped by social agencies. Subsequently, the whole police force became identified with the crime solving role of the detectives.\* The projected pattern of crime and police in San Francisco over the next twenty years which follows recognizes the dual role of police and their ineffectiveness to date as crime fighters. An attempt is made to define the proper role of the police and means of achieving success in this role.

Statistics and Trends - Presently San Francisco, like most other major metropolitan areas, is experiencing a sharp increase in crime, increased tension in minority areas, a breakdown of community-police relations, and a sharp increase in drug usage. In addition, potential and actual riot type situations occur with increasing frequency on campuses and in the ghettos, particularly Negro ghettos.

Figure II-40 plots the rising crime rate in San Francisco for the past 20 years. The upper graph line represents the

\* Atlantic Monthly, "What Makes a Better Policeman," March, 1969.





\* simple assaults subtracted from Official Figures  
 \*\* simple assaults subtracted from Official figures statutory rapes added

Figure II-40. RISING CRIME RATE IN SAN FRANCISCO  
 FOR THE PAST 20 YEARS

number of Part I crimes -- murder, manslaughter, rape, robbery, aggravated assault, burglary, and theft including auto theft -- while the bottom graph line indicates the number of these offenses which were cleared. Offenses cleared are those which result in an arrest (or in the case of an auto theft result in either arrest or recovery of the auto). While the number cleared has increased, the percentage of offenses cleared has actually decreased over the period 1960-1969. The figures are displayed below.

<u>Year</u>	1960	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
<u>% Crimes</u>	17%	15%	12%	10%	11%	12%
<u>Cleared</u>						

Although the decrease in the percentage of crimes cleared is not sharp, the sheer number of unsolved crimes has increased dramatically. This seems one obvious reason for the present community dissatisfaction with police service.

Tables II-24 and II-25 both show the relationship of crime trends in San Francisco to those of California, the western states, and the United States. The rate of increase of auto theft and robbery are particularly sharp in San Francisco.

To merely say that crime is increasing in San Francisco is to significantly understate the problem. The problem exists throughout the U.S., but it is critical in San Francisco. The increase shown in the figures are especially dramatic in view of the city's population stability during the same period. Investigation of various neighborhoods had indicated that the age groups, social economic levels, and ethnic mixtures have also remained fairly constant.

Where the police are concerned, there are additional grim indicators of a potential crisis. Arrests in 1967 for narcotics violations in San Francisco rose 57% over previous year figures.<sup>(1) (2)</sup> In spite of the soaring robbery rate, San Francisco cleared only 18% of the cases in 1967, whereas

Table II-24  
COMPARISON OF CRIME TRENDS  
(January-June 1968 Over 1967)<sup>(3)</sup>

	Total Index	Robbery	Burglary	Auto Theft
Total of Cities Between 500,000 and 1,000,000				
Population	+23%	+30%	+19%	+24%
Western States	+20%	+29%	+18%	+22%
San Francisco	+24%	+63%	+11%	+41%

Table II-25  
COMPARISON OF CRIME INDEX RATES  
(1967 Estimates -- Crimes per 100,000 Population)

	Total Index	Robbery	Burglary	Auto Theft
California	3207	149	1446	508
San Francisco	4950	533	1065	745
Difference	+54%	+268%	-26%	+47%

the Pacific States overall cleared 29.7% and all cities between 500,000 and 1,000,000 population cleared 26.7%<sup>(1)</sup>

The increasing crime rates and subsequent increases in arrests are causing a workload crises throughout the San Francisco Law Enforcement System. In fiscal 1967-68, the District Attorney was involved in 14,760 felony hearings -- an increase of 39% over 1966-67.<sup>(3)</sup> The Public Defender, who already carries the heaviest workload per deputy of any comparable agency in the nation and handled 75% of all criminal cases in San Francisco, represented 19% more defendants over this period.<sup>(4)</sup> By the end of fiscal 1968-69, all court related departments had increased personnel 16% and increased budgets 48% in two years.

The above increases are disproportional to the increase in the number of police. As shown in Fig. II-40, the number of policemen has increased by only 72 over the past ten years and actually decreased by 5 men over the period 1967 to 1970. Thus, it appears the police have actually increased their effectiveness per man while the number of civilians involved in police work has quadrupled over this period, however, it does not appear that many policemen have been transferred from office work to patrol.

By District - When the crime rates are examined by district several interesting facts emerge. First, the most dramatic increase in each district examined was in the Part 1 crimes. Contrary to the opinion often expressed, it is not auto theft which caused the sharp increase. The crimes of violence, assault, robbery, rape and murder, show the sharpest increase. Figure II-41 shows the trends for three areas: Mission, Protrero (which includes Hunter's Point), and Travel (which serves the Sunset area).

Mission - The number of offenses of all types has increased sharply over the period 1960-68 particularly from 1965 to



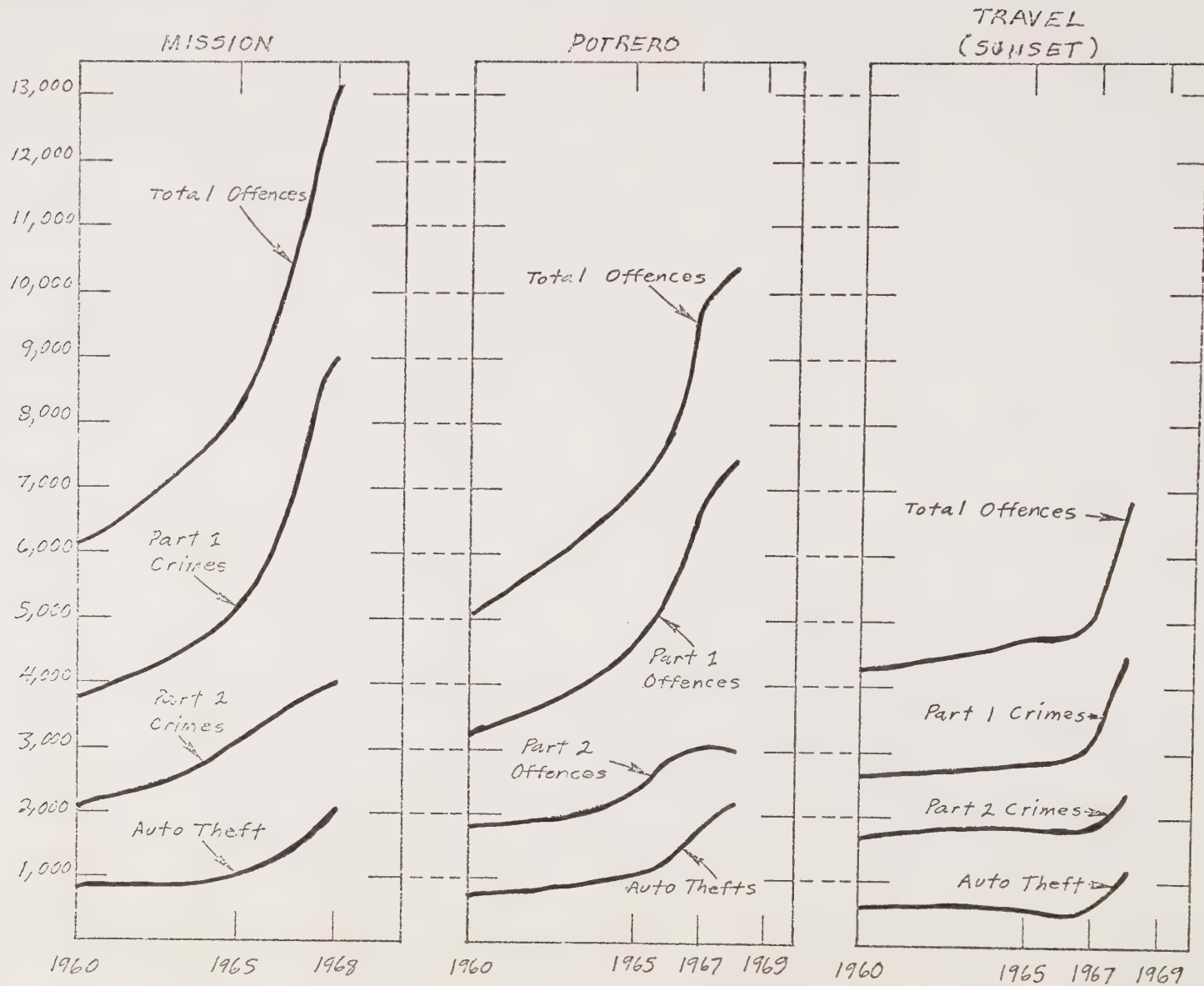


Figure II-41. TRENDS IN CRIME IN THE MISSION, POTRERO, AND TRAVEL (Sunset)

1968. The sharpest increase has been in crimes against persons, the Part 1 crimes.

Protrero - The sharp increase in crime from 1960 to 1967 slackened somewhat from 1967 to 1968. However, it is not clear whether this decrease was due to a decrease in crime or a decrease in reporting of crime. There is a good deal of support for the latter opinion from conversations with the people in this community.

Sunset - Sunset enjoyed a stable crime rate until 1967 when there was a dramatic increase. Thus, the community concern over rising crime is well supported by statistics. However, the increase is principally due to crimes of violence, not petty crimes and auto theft as has been suggested.

#### Crime in the Streets

Most of the current emphasis on "law and order" can be traced to the increase in street crime, crimes against persons and crimes against property. The other criminal areas such as fraud, embezzlement, forgery, and violations of various business codes do not generate the emotional response that robbery, rape, manslaughter, and burglary create.

The political pressure generated by citizens' concern for their physical safety and the safety of their property has created and released state and federal funds for improving the quality of public safety. The problem, however, remains. The streets of major cities in the U.S. are not safe at night and not very safe during the day. San Francisco's progress toward matching the untenable conditions of New York, Washington, and Chicago can be seen in the rising trend of Part 1 crimes shown in Fig. II-40.

Personal interviews with minority groups showed that their great concern is for physical safety. Reports of purse snatchings, gang fights, burglaries, rape, shootings, and auto thefts repeatedly crept into the conversation. This is

especially noteworthy since there was a general attempt to "put on a good face" and to portray ghetto residents, as honest, law-abiding citizens who are unjustly treated by the "pigs" for no good reason. It was also obvious that residents in all areas feel police protection of both their persons and their property is inadequate. The official police statistics fully support this statement.

If San Francisco is to remain a viable city, the crime rate must be lowered, and the fear of crime reduced. Instances were observed where people have left the city or have refrained from moving into the city due to their fears for the safety of their families and themselves. Physical and material safety is obviously of primary concern to all. It is a highly significant factor in the quality of life and must be given a high priority in allocation of resources.

#### Police Organizational Structure and Technology

The San Francisco Police Department is organized into a tradition locked system. The formal structure of the department was established in the city charter around the turn of the century and spelled out the nature and shape of the line organization - police commission, Chief of Police, and the primary departments of Traffic, Patrol and Inspectors, and auxiliary sections such as planning and research, records, personnel, etc. Figure II-42 shows the present organization which is currently being revised in some areas. The 9 police districts are shown in Fig. II-43. There are no comprehensive written policies and procedures for the police department. Departments operate because "that's the way we've done it in the past" or "that's what the current chief wants."

The major difference in structure between the traffic bureau and the Patrol bureau points out one of the major inherent organizational problems. Sworn officers working in one bureau do not easily cross over and work in another bureau. The same situation exists with regard to the utilization of

# ORGANIZATION CHART

## San Francisco Police Department

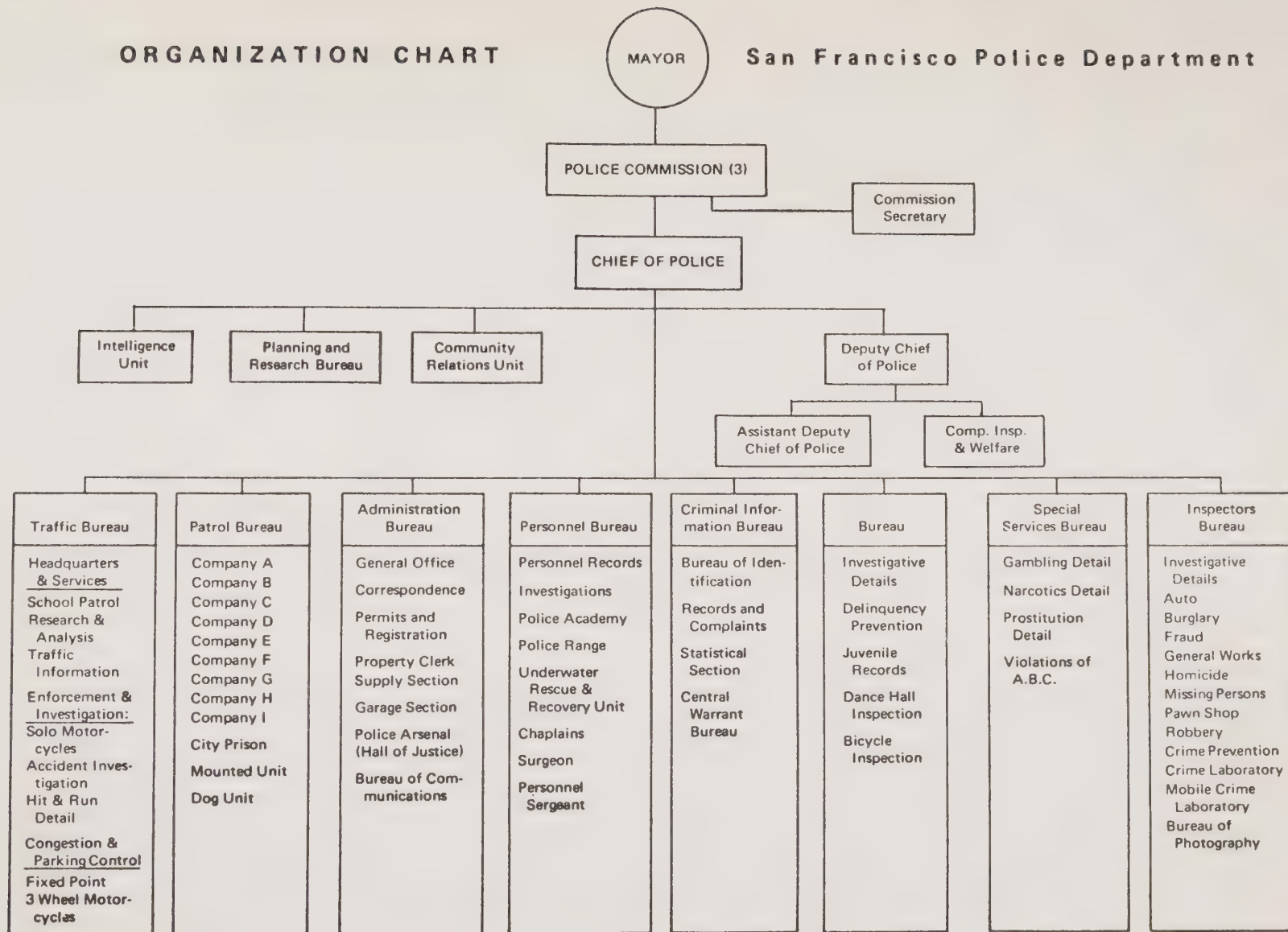


Figure II-42. ORGANIZATION CHART OF SAN FRANCISCO POLICE DEPARTMENT



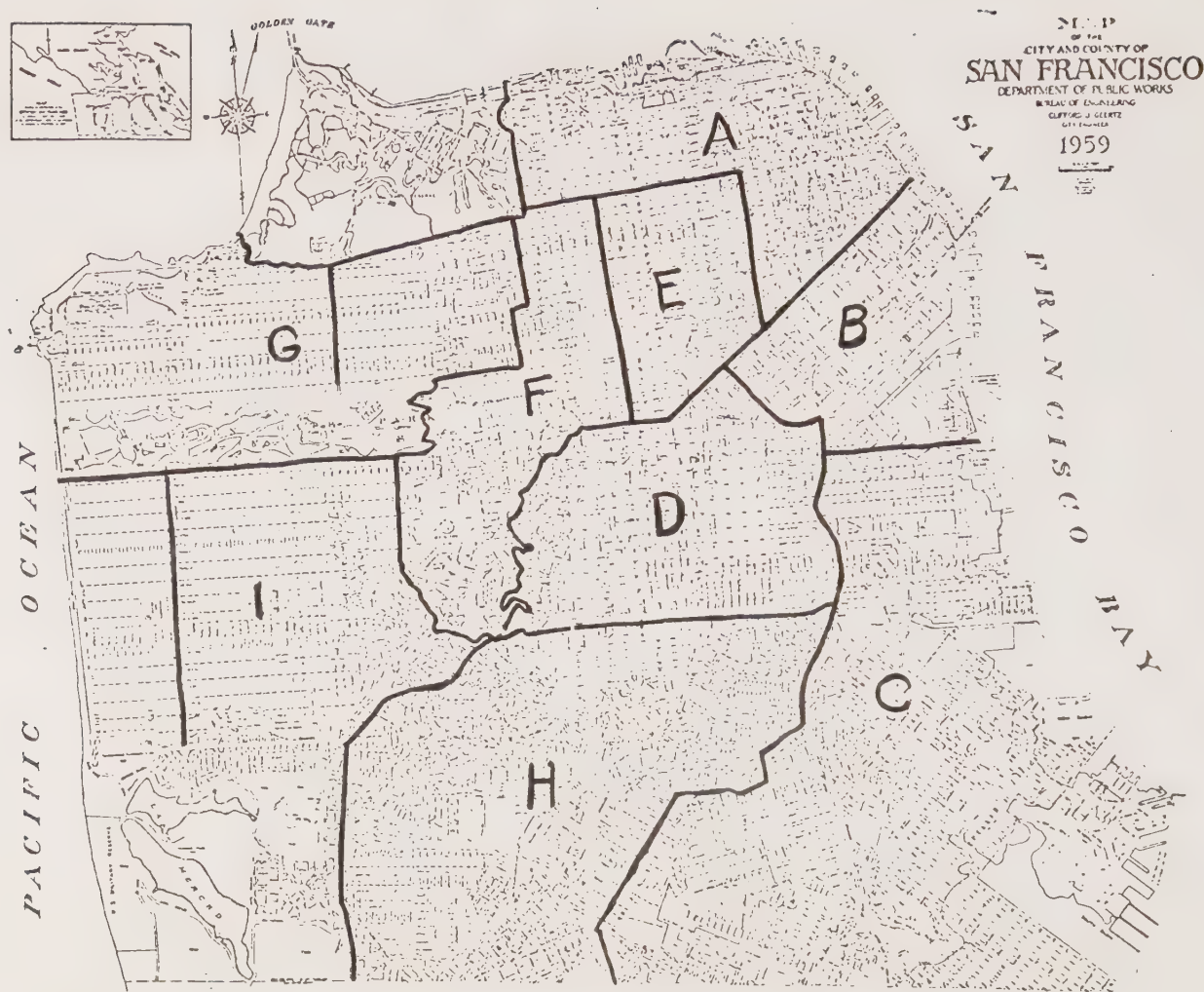


Figure II-43. THE 9 POLICE DISTRICTS IN SAN FRANCISCO

patrolmen. Traffic officers confine their activities solely to traffic actions and as a rule the patrol division people operate solely within patrol as a crime apprehension mode. An incident which illustrates this lack of cooperation made newspaper headlines several years ago. Two detectives on foot were chasing a thief. Meanwhile, the traffic officer at the intersection merely watched the pursuit and continued to direct traffic although he could have easily intercepted the thief. This led the community and news media to raise the question "are traffic cops policemen?"

Another major aspect of the police organizational structure is the freewheeling manner in which the different levels of the department operate. The department has developed a pattern of independent action on the part of the patrolmen. In the former years lieutenants and sergeants maintained control and discipline through personal contact and frequent use of the call box. The increased mobility afforded by the patrol car and radio has removed the personal contact and individual policemen have become more independent. The advent of police unions and tight civil service regulations have removed various checks against police authoritarianism, making discipline past the first year on the force difficult. The police bureaucracy suffers from the same ailments as other bureaucracies (Peter Principle). Inefficiency and lack of control is an accomplished fact. Furthermore, since police are civil service workers, they cannot be fired. In light of this and other factors, the discipline problem is further aggravated.

The fairly unaltering clearance rate is a viable indication of the never changing operational modes within the police department. The records section is an example. A manual records system was developed a considerable number of years ago. From all indications, it did an adequate job in servicing the police department for some time. But when

the crime indexes rose the system remained static. This system, efficient when set up, can operate at only fixed slow pace. This is one reason why the clearance rate is constant. It doesn't matter what the crime rate is anymore, the records related clearance system operates at a constant rate with a 10% fluctuation from year to year.

Another major difficulty is the lack of management information. The only comprehensive report available of any of the police department's activities is the annual report which basically gives a summary of crime statistics. The chief, inspectors, captains, and so on must determine, it appears, the operation of their respective areas by "feel", personnel interview, and haphazard reports.

The structure of the police department within the city administration is shown in Fig. II-44.

The reform type city charter was responsible for the institution of a mayor, police commission, chief of police form of law enforcement organization. The requirement for having a police commission may have been necessary at the time when corruption was widespread and a reform mood was in the air. Today's police commission does little more than formally pass on routine administrative matters such as approve overtime requests, etc. A difficulty that the police commission poses to the police department is that it subjugates the Chief of Police to all the other major department heads. It also causes the chief to have four bosses, the three commissioners and the Mayor. This makes it difficult for the police department staff to work effectively in a lateral way with other city departments and creates a politically unstable relationship at the top of the structure.

The difficulty that was pointed out with records indicated another area which lacks modern police department equipment. The police department has an outmoded communications system, a manual Criminal Information Bureau, and is forced

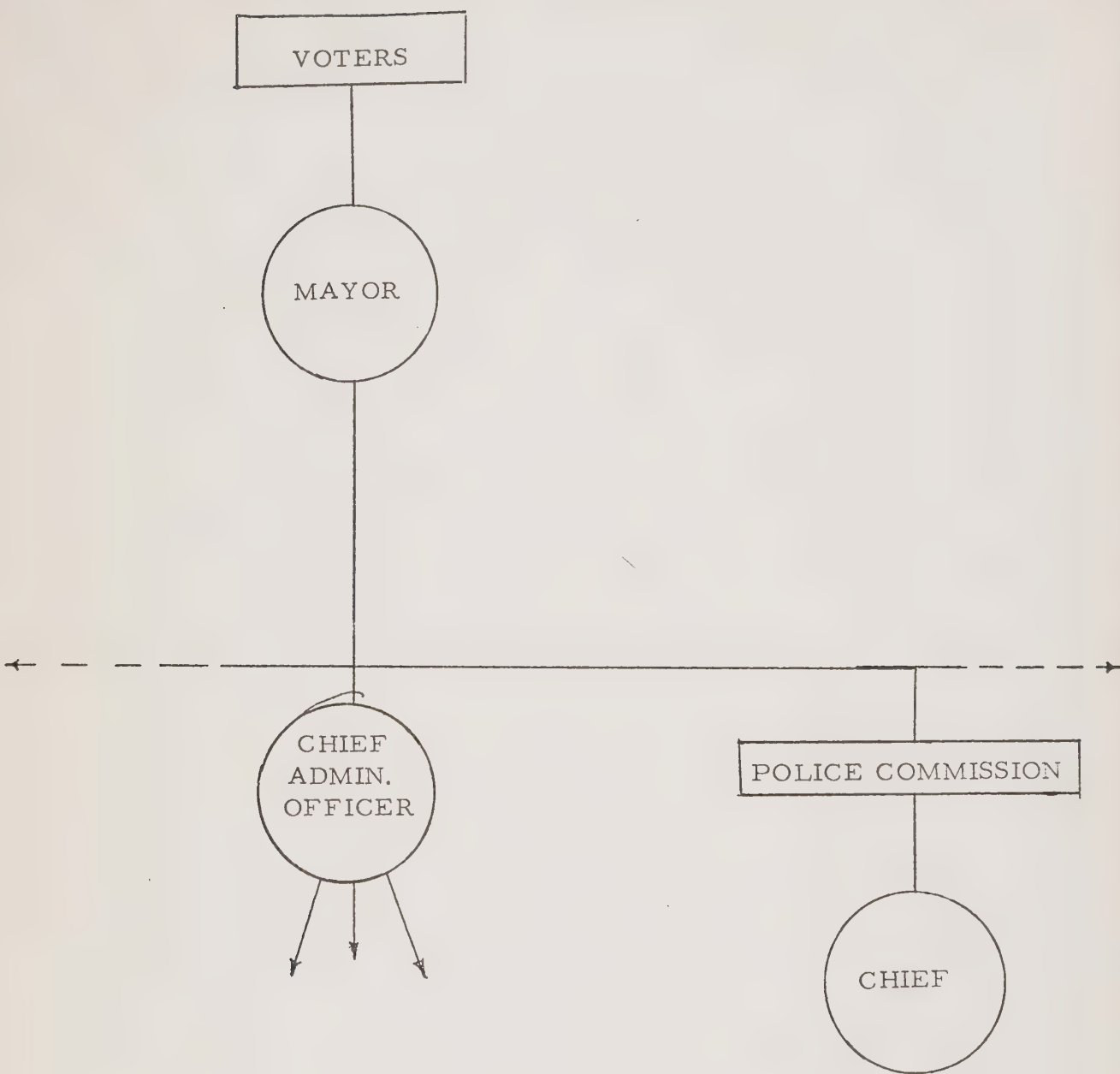


Figure II-44. POLICE DEPARTMENT STRUCTURE WITHIN THE CITY ADMINISTRATION



to use conventional automobiles for police cars.

The varying requirements on police vehicles during patrol severely taxes the ability of standard vehicles used as police cars. During one week of an observation, five cars were totally wrecked. It is difficult to evaluate the exact cause of these accidents because the police cover up police car accidents. Interviews have pointed out that inadequate police vehicle performance was largely responsible for the majority of the particular accidents that were looked into.

The communications system consists of the telephone system in the hall of justice, the call box wire system, a teletype service connecting to the nine district patrol stations, and a two way radio system. The system has grown on an add on basis in a curious manner. New equipment is purchased and installed by the department of electricity with random inputs as to requirements by the police department. The communications area budget is frequently in the Finance Committee and shortage of funds has been a major factor in the continued hodge-podge growth. This has been a poor financial policy as is illustrated with radios. The repair bills of many of the 12 yr. old two-way radios currently in operation has exceeded the purchase price of new equipment by threefold. The equipment has such an unreliable operation in the field that officers often claim that they could not respond to a call for service because they could not hear the base station. Badly needed police vehicles are often kept out of service because the radios are being repaired. We have found this to be true in the Mission District, one of the police districts which was closely examined.

The storage and usage of records was previously briefly discussed in relation to the steady state clearance rate. The criminal information bureau currently consists of the Bureau of Identification, records and complaints, statistical section, central Warrant Bureau, the new EDP program, and,

recently, the Bureau of Communications. The storage and usage of the mountains of accumulated paper is determined by two basic factors. The records are stored for legal purposes or are used for investigative or routine police work, such as stolen car verification. The fact that all this information is on paper makes it very difficult for the police department to determine what is going on about everything other than by gross approximation. Since a basic requirement for effective law enforcement today and certainly twenty years from now is to have a good on-going data base for the multitude of requirements, it can be seen that this area is severely lacking.

### Jails

Presently the police and sheriff's department each maintain a separate jail in the Hall of Justice. These units are functionally separate, however, they do share a common food preparation unit. Separate facilities are provided for juveniles. The Sheriff also maintains a jail facility at San Bruno. It is costly to maintain two separate jails for two reasons. First, there is duplication which creates unnecessary expense. Secondly, there appears to be no reason why sheriff's deputies, who receive over two hundred dollars a month less than police officers, could not staff both jails. We discussed this with Police Chief Nelder and he felt that this was a feasible proposal. Police have been excluded from using the jail function to promote confessions by court rules and at the present time there is no advantage to staffing the jails with police officers.

The San Bruno jail is overcrowded and in need of major repair. It may be necessary to completely replace this institution. The Sheriff's Office has been severely criticized for maintaining jails in extremely poor condition and with insufficient protection against escape. It has been suggested that a county department of corrections be established

which would manage all jail facilities maintained by the City-County of San Francisco. This department would report to the State Department of Corrections. This proposal has merit, for it would enable the county to use the expertise available in the Department of Corrections. However, the basic problem with the jails appears to be a lack of finances. The Sheriff proposes a budget which is then approved (almost always involving a cut) by the mayor. The Board of Supervisors then also has the option of making further cuts.

It appears the jails are underfunded. Whether this is principally due to cuts at the mayor's level or a reluctance on the part of the sheriff to ask for needed funds is unclear. The sheriff always has asked for more money than he has received. However, he does not appear to press these demands. This may be because he feels it is useless or because of political considerations.

Problems arise when an elected official has to submit his budget by line item to another elected official. It is impossible, then, to pinpoint responsibility. When the sheriff is criticized for present jail conditions he replies that he has asked for but been denied sufficient funds to eliminate these conditions. A method should be developed which would make one person responsible and accountable for jail conditions.

#### Community Interface: Key Area for San Francisco's Future

The breakdown in police community relations is primarily due to the separation of the city's society into disjointed groups with different, conflicting requirements; the existence of laws which are relics from the past, unnecessary, and/or unenforceable; and continued lack of a good workable definition of police service based on meeting the needs and requirements of the community.

Disjointed groups are readily identifiable within the city. The white middle-class has an attitude of spiritless

support for the police. They feel service is poor but usually report burglaries and other crimes and generally cooperate with police investigations. However, the vote against revenues for the police. The largest district of white middle class, Sunset, is considered the easiest duty because the crime rate is low compared to other districts. Other groups in the city not only do not support the police but actively seek to undermine police authority. An ideological attitude against white man's society and its police is promoted among the Black youth groups in Hunter's Point and to some extent in Sunnydale and Western Addition. An incident in Sunnydale, discussed in the Appendix, tends to shed some light on the subject of Black antagonism toward the police. The reaction of the Latin groups, as in the Mission District, towards law enforcement is highly categorized by age. The younger people lack proper recreational outlets and their mischief leads to police encounters. Older residents maintain a generally middle class attitude toward police and their work.

#### Police Community Relations

Unless there is a major change in police hiring practices, the militant attitude of minorities, and in police service and operational procedures, police-minority relations will worsen. Several factors contribute to the increasing alienation of the police and minority groups. One is that the principle source of police manpower is the white lower middle class, the "working class." This group tends to be prejudiced against minorities and against the poor who receive welfare. It should be recalled that scarcely twenty years have passed since the recognition by the Supreme Court that civil rights must be honored irregardless of race, color, or creed. Police tend to associate minorities and crime since, as stated in the Atlantic, "ethnic slums characteristically have been centers of crime, violence, and vice. Most



immigrants groups living in urban America in the past as well as more recent Negro migrants have contributed disproportionately to the ranks of criminals and racketeers. Hence, the police have often found that their experience confirmed the negative cultural stereotypes which have been cited about such groups while they lived in the crowded, dirty, slum conditions."\* The difference in police reactions to Negro and student riot conditions can easily be observed. An even more blatant example of differing police reactions can be seen in police-union situations. Illegal strikes including pickets and demonstrations rarely lead to police-union member physical conflict. However, a demonstration which is similar except that Negroes and students are involved almost invariably leads to physical conflict between the police and the demonstrators.

Another police recruitment pattern which may contribute to poor community relations is the practice of hiring ex-military personnel. The data to determine the proportion of ex-military personnel in the San Francisco police force is not available. However, it appears that they would 1) be interested in obtaining police positions, 2) be able to pass the physical, and 3) be considered favorably by the police department.

Military personnel are used to using rough treatment on prisoners and other personnel and may carry this attitude into civilian police work. This tactic is particularly grating to minority group members who are very conscious of impolite or rough treatment.

A second factor which contributes to worsening police-minority relations is the present militant attitude of the Negroes. It is obvious that a Negro leader cannot afford to support the police in any way. Only an established leader who has actually won important victories over a long

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\*"Why Cops Hate Liberals and Vice Versa," the Atlantic, March 1969.

period can publicly state that police are necessary. In addition, many Negro leaders actively promote and encourage dislike of and antagonism toward police. This is not to say that a friendly feeling is changed to an unfriendly one, but that an unfriendly attitude is pushed toward a hostile one. The situation in the brown minority groups is far less critical. Here the more responsible members of the community support the police. Also, the Latinos and Chicanos are more often involved in small businesses and support the police for the protection they receive. Nevertheless, in the brown area such as Mission, the distrust of the police is starting to extend from the teenagers to the young adult and a dissatisfaction with service is eroding the police support base in the mature portion of the population.

The effect of poor police service, an important factor in police-minority relations, is to dampen what little support for the police that exists in the areas inhabited by the poor and the minority groups. Persons living in the Mission, Hunter's Point, Protrero and other similar districts are desperate for police service. When people think of crime in the ghetto they tend to picture a store being robbed. Actually, the majority of crimes are crimes against fellow ghetto residents. This is illustrated in Fig. II-41 which contains graphs of assaults in three areas - Mission (a poor neighborhood of browns, blacks, whites, American Indians, etc.), Protrero (a poor Negro neighborhood), and Sunset (a white middle-class neighborhood). While assaults in all areas are increasing, the poor neighborhoods, such as Protrero and Mission have almost four times the assaults that occur in the Sunset area. Aggravated assaults are generally crimes against a person by a resident of the community, or a friend, or relative, a person does not go to another neighborhood to assault someone. These "crimes on the street" account for the stable residents growing fear of being out alone at night.

In the past the high ghetto crime rate created a basis of support for the police from the poor, who are more often victims of crime. Some of this support remains, but much has and continues to dissolve. An indication of the desire for police protection was seen when rumors arose that the Protrero Police Station was to be closed. A barrage of calls and letters were received demanding that the station remain. However, in talking to residents of Mission, Protrero, and Western Addition, the comment was frequently heard that "the next time our car is stolen we won't bother to call the police since obviously they are of no help." Thus, the poor police crime solution rate coupled with the long response time to calls also causes hostility to the police and generates a feeling that they are of no use.

Police operational methods also contribute to the growth of community hostility. The police tend to over-react in the minority areas causing small incidents to become major confrontations. The near riot situation in Sunnydale during the period of May 25 to May 28 provides a graphic illustration of this process. A report on the events from the community standpoint is contained in the Appendix. Briefly, a store was fire bombed and the police responded as though to an incipient riot. Initially, the community at large supported the police and appeared anxious to catch and punish the culprit. Due to disproportionately heavy police response, however, this attitude changed to one of overt hostility to the police. An action-reaction pattern is set up when an initial action by one side generates a counter action by the other (the reaction) which in turn generates a reaction from the originating side. At each reaction feelings heighten and the two factions have less communications. Eventually a state of extreme hostility is reached.

The issue of police brutality in San Francisco is perhaps the most difficult area to study objectively. The claim of

police brutality is constantly heard in the Negro areas. Every Negro resident of San Francisco from teenager to mature leader or government official claimed to have personally witnessed an incident of police brutality. The brown people in Mission also believe the blacks suffer extreme police brutality. The police reply is that such claims are always made; there is no way to stop such stories; channels of complaint exist, incidents are investigated and when guilty the policeman is punished. The counter complaint from ghetto residents (particularly teenage boys) is that persons who file complaints are beaten up in a lonely spot by the policeman involved.

Officially, brutality is not condoned by responsible officials and high ranking police officers (captains, the chief) actively discourage such practices. However, in any organization a certain number of bad apples are almost certain to creep in, and the brutality reports tend to be linked (except in time of riot or near riot) to particular individuals. The police have a personnel and organizational attitude which tends to protect these individuals. The police, and for many logical reasons, tend to consider themselves a group apart. They receive little community support, are charged with enforcing unwanted and unworkable laws, and encounter active hostility from many groups. These factors tend to cement the police together and create a protective wall against outsiders, for any officers who commit improper acts. Criticism of the police only solidifies this attitude and results in poorer control of poor conduct. Thus, another action-reaction pattern emerges as shown in the illustration on the following page.

It is obvious that better community interface requires that these action-reaction patterns be broken. A major aspect of community interface is the definition of police service as reflecting the desires or feeling of the community.



Community		Reports, Accusations
Police brutality incident report		Solid wall of hostility
Police solidify creating a pro- tective wall	Brutality increases due to protective attitude	Solid wall of protection and hos- tility
Police		

The police enforce statutes to the extent that manpower limitations and public attitude allow. The crime trends clearly show that reported crimes are increasing drastically. The police department with its fairly stable force and present method of operation is not coping with this continuing increase as shown by the fairly constant crime clearance rate.

The following is an outline of key community attitudes, community police relations and relevant legal and other factors causing the crime increase difficulty. The reason for exploring these divergent areas (which some may consider irrelevant) is that the solution of adding more police does not alone appear to be the answer. New York city experienced a rapid increase in crime twenty years ago similar to that now experienced in San Francisco and built up a system known as "wall to wall cops." Chicago did likewise. In recent times the crime rate in New York has continued to skyrocket and the New York city Police Department has countered by issuing misleading, very inaccurate statistics which the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) has on several occasions doubted as valid. If New York can be taken as an example, then adding police is not the answer to the core city problem.

#### Community Attitudes Toward Unpopular Laws

The police are faced with the duty of enforcing laws which major areas of the community do not support. Abuses

of laws regarding marijuana and similar level drugs is characteristic of the lack of community support for such laws. The regular beat patrolmen do not "bust" (arrest) the ordinary users of marijuana. Interviews within the ranks of the patrolman and among the common users have shown this to be true. There are several reasons why this is the current policy in the city. First, the greater majority of youths either directly use marijuana or condone its usage. Second, the police in the patrol division, who are in major contact with the great populace, have been consistantly undermanned to the extent that if the average patrolmen constantly arrested people for marijuana usage, he would have no time for preventive patrol. Third, since many youths picked up on drug charges are first offenders with no prior arrests, the police are very reluctant to make an arrest because it would launch the youth on a career of crime.

Interestingly enough, our interviews have indicated that the police themselves consider the marijuana drug laws socially unacceptable and unenforceable. Thus, the police put into effect their own preventive crime measures by trying to avoid giving people an arrest record for this socially unacceptable legal structure. It should be pointed out that both the younger policemen and the oldtimers feel this way; the ones in the middle, however, have to make a good show for promotions and other internal police politics considerations.

The relevancy of the drug problem in San Francisco within the context of this report cannot be overemphasized because, according to best information, over half of the burglaries and robberies currently committed in the city are perpetuated to support the acquisition and use of drugs. This contributes a very significant portion of the continuing increase in the cities crime picture. It appears that this reason has been a major factor in the crime increase in the Sunset-Parkside district, previously a last vestage of low crime activity.

When a large cohesive group feels a law is unjust, the police must either "look the other way" or operate virtually without help as though in a hostile country. In either case, law enforcement programs suffer. A contempt of police is developed. If the police do not even attempt to enforce the unpopular laws, rumors of bribes and payoffs arise or the police may be thought to be ineffective. But, if the police do attempt to enforce the law, a major portion of the community may become law breakers. A first offense on a marijuana charge can be a felony. Since a juvenile drug record cannot be sealed, the individual finds many privileges suspended and is pushed further toward more serious criminal involvement. In addition, the individual usually feels he has been unjustly treated and develops hostility toward the police and the court system.

The citizens and police are now caught in a community relations rift which is getting wider. The premise that police enforce the laws is very shallow because of the unenforceable laws and parallel generated lawlessness. The citizens see the increasing crime and see the police as failing to do anything about it. Consequently, public support continues to get lower. The police then see the public reaction, manifested strongly as negative votes for pay raises, and feels that the public wants law and order. The police version of law and order is swift arraignment, harsh punishment. This attitude is demonstrated by use in the suburbs of tactical squad Gaestapo techniques, and in continued harrassment of youngsters. The younger generation then displays more hostility towards police, thus attitudes which aggravate the core city crime picture continue to develop.

In 1965 the heavy upward spiral of reported crimes started. The police-community spiral really compounded and took place between 1965 and 1969. For example, two or three years ago people reported the theft of autos to the police immedi-

ately. However, since it took the police a couple of days, if ever, to take a report, and since they only cleared 10% of the stolen car cases, people in this current period are just looking for the car themselves. The police stop looking for stolen cars after two weeks from the initial report time. The people then tend to conjur up all possible causes for blame and barrage the police either through the ballot box or community pressure, peacefully or violently. In 1968 the mayor set up several community liaison groups within the community and within the police department.

Our investigation has indicated that the 1969-70 era is one of a confused populace with no hope in sight. This is a significant cause of the continued white middle class migration out of the city. This is really an ironic situation because one very important goal of the city administration and business interests is to keep the white middle class in the city, witness the urban renewal programs. The hope of this discussion of the police-populace, community relations rift is to outline some of the causes of basic "law and order" unrest that is causing the city to continue its core city downward spiral. A twenty year projection then is not pleasant. The outline of implementation programs is presented later in the report for the subject of community interface action. It is important to redefine community interface as the matching of the peoples needs and requirements with police services.

### Goals

As was implied throughout the descriptive section of the report, fulfilling community needs and requirements is the primary goal of the proposals presented below. A change in emphasis of the role of police must be effected whereby the police image is transformed from a symbol of unsympathetic authority who appears only after a crime has been committed or peace disturbed to one of responsible interest in community



affairs so that crime and disturbances are prevented. Concurrently, the community itself must realize its responsibilities in the maintenance of order and justice. A secondary goal of the proposal is the upgrading of the police and their operations. Perhaps the most outstanding community need for police service is the reduction of crime and the subsequent alleviation of the fear of crime.

### 3. Employment Services

At the current time there are at least 37 different training and/or educational programs in San Francisco with an expected fiscal year 1970 expenditure of \$15,000,000. In addition, at least 31 different organizational entities provide counseling services requiring additional funds of about \$4,315,000. Programs providing employment services include the Department of Social Services, Department of Labor, Department of Education, Office of Economic Opportunity, National Alliance of Businessmen, State Department of Industrial Relations, State Human Resources Board, plus several smaller agencies.

#### Programs

#### Manpower Development & Training Act (MDTA) Institutional Training

Unemployed and underemployed over 15 years old with no or obsolete skills are provided vocational training under this program. Transportation and weekly subsistence allowance are provided during this training which is actually conducted by the Department of Education. Basic training (math, etc.) is provided to train people how to perform on the job.

#### MDTA-OJT (On Job Training)

This program for the unemployed, underemployed, and employed persons needing upgrading in order to remain employed involves training projects in various occupations requested by private employers, labor unions and public agencies. Sometimes, the OJT is supplemented with institutional training.

The majority of projects have been developed for upgrading of workers or for training in additional or new skills. The person is paid by the employer, with usually some partial reimbursement being provided to the employer.

#### Work Incentive Program

This program is for welfare recipients. Training under this program can be institutional or individual. However, the number in training is limited by a quota.

#### MDTA - Individual Referral

This program differs from the one providing institutional training as the individuals are referred to ongoing classes. The referral is handled on an individual rather than an institutional basis.

#### Youth (Adult) Opportunity Centers

Special offices handle this youth program which is designed to assist youth of low-income families. Basically, this program provides specialized services of counseling, training, and job placement. The emphasis is on individual assistance.

The adult program was in operation only in San Francisco and Oakland during November, 1969. The goal of this program is to provide intensive employment services in the poverty areas. Various community agencies have participated in this program.

#### Job Corps (JC)

Youth who are unemployed and out of school are enrolled in centers to receive educational training. There are two types of centers - conservation centers and training centers. The conservation centers provide basic educational training and the training centers provide vocational training. The nearest center to San Francisco is located in Oregon.

#### Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC)

This is primarily an OJT program which places youth in

jobs created for them normally in a public agency or non-profit organization. Youth in this program work less than 40 hours per week and are paid at the minimum level. A special summer program is provided for youth who will continue in school.

#### National Alliance of Businessmen (NAB)

This program is a national summer youth program similar to the NYC. OJT is provided for youth by businessmen. OEO is responsible for the administration of this program.

#### New Careers

Pre-professional OJT is provided by the New Careers Program. The goal of this program is to provide a stepladder to a professional position to lower salaried workers. For example, a person might work as a lab assistant, assistant social worker, etc.

For FY 1970 an expected 44,600 people will be enrolled in at least one of the training/educational programs. An estimate of the unmet needs during FY 1970 amounts to another 110,000 people of which about 65,000 are adults in need of basic adult education. An attachment lists the unmet needs.

An estimated 25,500 Spanish-speaking people are currently in need of learning the English language. About 22,500 people who speak Chinese are in need of learning the English language to be able to compete for employment. The areas which are primarily affected by the language barrier are the Mission and Chinatown.

Presently, the contractual training programs and the MDTA-OJT provide training only for the low-level, dead-end jobs. As an example, a recent contract was let for the training of janitors. Due to increasing automation and elimination of low-level positions the problem of training workers to become productive members of the community is wasted as these types of jobs are becoming scarcer in San

Francisco.

Another problem relates to the proposition that many unmarried mothers must be trained to enter the labor market. Adequate child-care facilities are not located near the training station. Some mothers discontinue the training because of the lack of child-care facilities.

During research of this problem we encountered numerous agencies which were providing employment services. Even within the Regional Office of the Department of Labor different organizational entities were responsible for different programs. There appeared to be little or no coordination among the related agencies. A similar problem is involved with the funds provided for the programs. Funds are used on a program basis with an apparent disregard for the needs of the deprived individual.

Although a person may elect to take the training provided by one of the employment service programs, transportation out of the ghetto areas presents some complications.

Some needy people are discriminated against because of the definition of "disadvantaged". Simplification of the requirements defining need would assist in reaching those in need.

Finally, information secured indicates that the training programs are not accomplishing the goal of effective training. Some of the programs are too short to ignore the need to prepare people mentally for employment. Many of the people served lack the incentive to earn a liveable wage. Training programs are filled on a quota basis which means some misplacement of people.

Proposed federal legislation provides that those able to work and are eligible for Federal Assistance Programs must enroll for employment and/or take some type of employment training. The proposed act specifies that the Secretary of Labor will have the responsibility for this activity.



It is speculated that more agencies will be created compounding the coordination problem. Unless checked, the current employment service picture will become more and more complicated with more hands in the pot of training programs.

#### 4 . Education

The San Francisco Unified School District, like most urban school systems in the nation, is confronted with the challenge of an aging, overcrowded physical plant and an expanding, racially changing school-age population that is demanding changed and improved structure and programs of educational delivery.

A projected growth of the school population during the next three decades is attributable to the recent influx of young people into the city and the maturing of children born during the post World War II baby boom. Not only will the young population expand significantly, but it will increasingly be composed of children from racial minorities. This reflects the recent immigration of non-white families and individuals who are in the family formation and child-bearing age range. This immigration is expected to continue for the foreseeable future, with a simultaneous decline in the proportion of whites in the total population.

Segregation of minority students will be an increasing problem for the San Francisco Unified School District. Because of the fact that the elementary schools of the district serve a neighborhood area and the junior and senior high schools serve an increasing number of neighborhoods, concentration of minority students is greatest at the elementary school level.

Although approximately twice as many of San Francisco's youth attend non-public schools as the state average, the expense and selectiveness of private schools tend to leave their public counterparts with a disproportion of students with learning handicaps that are associated with lower

socio-economic status and in turn with racial minorities. The problems of bilingualism, high transiency and limited social and economic opportunity often experienced by minority groups create special learning problems for many of their children. The language inadequacy of many of these students tends to retard and discourage their progress. Since vocational and economic mobility are closely related to level of educational achievement, the minority youth is at a competitive disadvantage. His learning environment must be designed to facilitate and encourage his advancement. The physical and academic environment of a school have a significant influence on the performance and achievement of students. Children from poverty families or culturally isolated households often do not receive the necessary encouragement and support of home which stimulates achievement.

To meet the needs of the City's growing and changing school population, the school system must provide teachers who are aware of the educational problems which confront this disadvantaged and all others under their supervision and are able to employ a variety of techniques to make the educational environment more relevant to each child.

#### Present Status

The past three years have been a large number of changes and improvements in the educational delivery system of the San Francisco Unified School District. This change and improvement can be more fully appreciated when one acknowledges the difficulty and inertia, if in fact not outright opposition to change, that is present in any institutionalized bureaucracy as large as the San Francisco Unified School District.

A list of all the changes and improvements that have occurred during the past three years would be unnecessarily long and of questionable worth. On the other hand, there might be some value in mentioning the most significant of the

changes and improvements as an attempt to indicate a pattern of progress and present status of the School District as well as to set the scene for future developments. An issue that had long been a primary goal of the teacher's organizations, with support from administrators and many parents, was moved toward attainment when the school board decided to hire 300 new teachers each year for a three year period in order to reduce class size and to provide preparation periods for teachers who previously didn't have them. Clerical services have been strengthened at all levels in an attempt to free professional staff members from non-teaching tasks. Long overdue improvements were made in library service, both by the addition of more librarians as well as clerical assistance for the professional staff of the libraries. In an effort to bring top teaching candidates to the School District and improve upon the present racial imbalance of the professional staff, nationwide personnel recruitment trips were instituted and a two year moratorium on the use of the National Teachers Examination was put into effect. Additional para-professionals, many of them from the neighborhood of the school in which they worked, swelled the ranks of this staff group to over 2,000. A renewed effort has been made to restrict teaching responsibilities to major and/or minor areas of preparation, except in unusual circumstances. In an area that is increasingly providing a critically important community linkage, the School District has embarked upon a new careers program to provide trained para-professionals and new careerists training that would lead toward teaching careers.

Curricular changes include organizing for educational planning on a regional basis and the employment of teacher specialists in at least five subject areas. A district-wide study was conducted relating to multi-channel instructional television. Bilingual education programs were

established with Spanish and Chinese project coordinators appointed. Computer programs at junior and senior high schools to help teach reading and mathematics skills have been developed in cooperation with private industry. A greatly expanded program for the gifted was developed in response to recommendations of a task force that had been appointed to evaluate this curricular area. Specific and intensive attention was given to the necessity of improving the reading level of students when a program was adopted in thirty schools that would reach 15,000 students with an individual and flexible approach to the reading problem. Outdoor education received long overdue attention when curricular programs were established in this vital area.

Expansion of the summer school program had multi-benefits; greater utilization of school facilities, longer employment, and therefore increased salaries, for larger numbers of professional staff, opportunities for innovative curricular offerings, and, most important, constructive use of student time in providing enriched and remedial course offerings. In an attempt to curtail the increasing problem of student use of drugs, the district installed a K-12 drug abuse program.

Recognizing the increased importance of occupational education for a large number of students, the district is cooperating in the development of a state master plan of occupational education. A task force developed a discipline handbook for the guidance of teachers, based on the statement of discipline principle and policy of the Board of Education. The pupil-counselor ratio was reduced from 700 to 1 to 525 to 1 in the high schools with a goal being set of 300 or less to 1.

New and innovative educational practices such as individualized non-graded instruction, modular scheduling, differentiated staffing and team teaching were being encouraged and



tried in schools through out the district. The challenge of developing a "Master Plan" for excellence in the San Francisco school system was undertaken by the district.

There was a prolific establishment of new institutions to meet identified educational needs of the School District. The fifth adult school, an off-campus teacher education center in the Mission District in collaboration with the University of California to train Spanish-speaking interns, guidance service centers to handle students with extreme behavior problems, Opportunity High School to provide a program of individualized instruction to more adequately meet the needs of those students whose interest in school has fallen to the point that effective learning can no longer take place in the regular school, a manpower training skill center to house Manpower Development Training Act classes, an emergency evaluation clinic for immediate assessment of problem students, a Chinese evaluation clinic to work with new immigrants, a creative environment center as a curriculum development demonstration center and a clearing house for multi-media programs and experimental "crash pads" for drug users in four high schools are on the list of new schools and centers established in the School District during the past three years to help meet identified educational needs and resolve educational problems.

A significant attempt to increase the degree of participation in the affairs of the School District was accomplished by the establishment of the Southeast Educational Development and the Ocean View-Merced Heights-Ingleside projects. School Site Councils, made up of student, community and faculty advisory committees, were established at all twenty-six secondary schools in the district.

Perhaps the most significant and far reaching development during the past three years was the issuance of the various "Educational Quality/Equality" reports which were

fostered by reports on racial balance in the San Francisco School District that were generated by the Stanford Research Institute. This continuing effort began with a superintendent's report which evaluated the SRI reports and offered eight additional program alternatives for educational quality and equality. A citizen's advisory committee was formed to study the superintendent's report, add community suggestions relating to providing integrated quality educational opportunities in the district and generate a report of their deliberations. This was followed by a report from the superintendent calling for action on the recommendations of the advisory committee and finally a followup report on progress on the action report. These reports center on the development of elementary school complexes made up of groups of schools that would bring together children of all racial and ethnic backgrounds. The complexes will be provided with creative and innovative educational programs that will insure quality and equality of education to meet the individual needs of all students.

#### 5. Fire

The San Francisco Fire Department is one of the six or seven best large-city fire departments in the U.S. This is confirmed by the American Insurance Association, which conducts comprehensive examinations of metropolitan fire departments and their capabilities, and bases fire insurance rates on the results of these examinations. It is important that the quality of this community service be maintained.

Some basic idea of the escalation of the Fire Department's response over the last 7 years, and the diverse nature of response, can be gained from Fig. II-45 and Table II-26. Note particularly the drastic increase in the percentage of all alarms that are false. Of the 12,594 false alarms received, 12,476 were turned in from street fire alarm boxes.

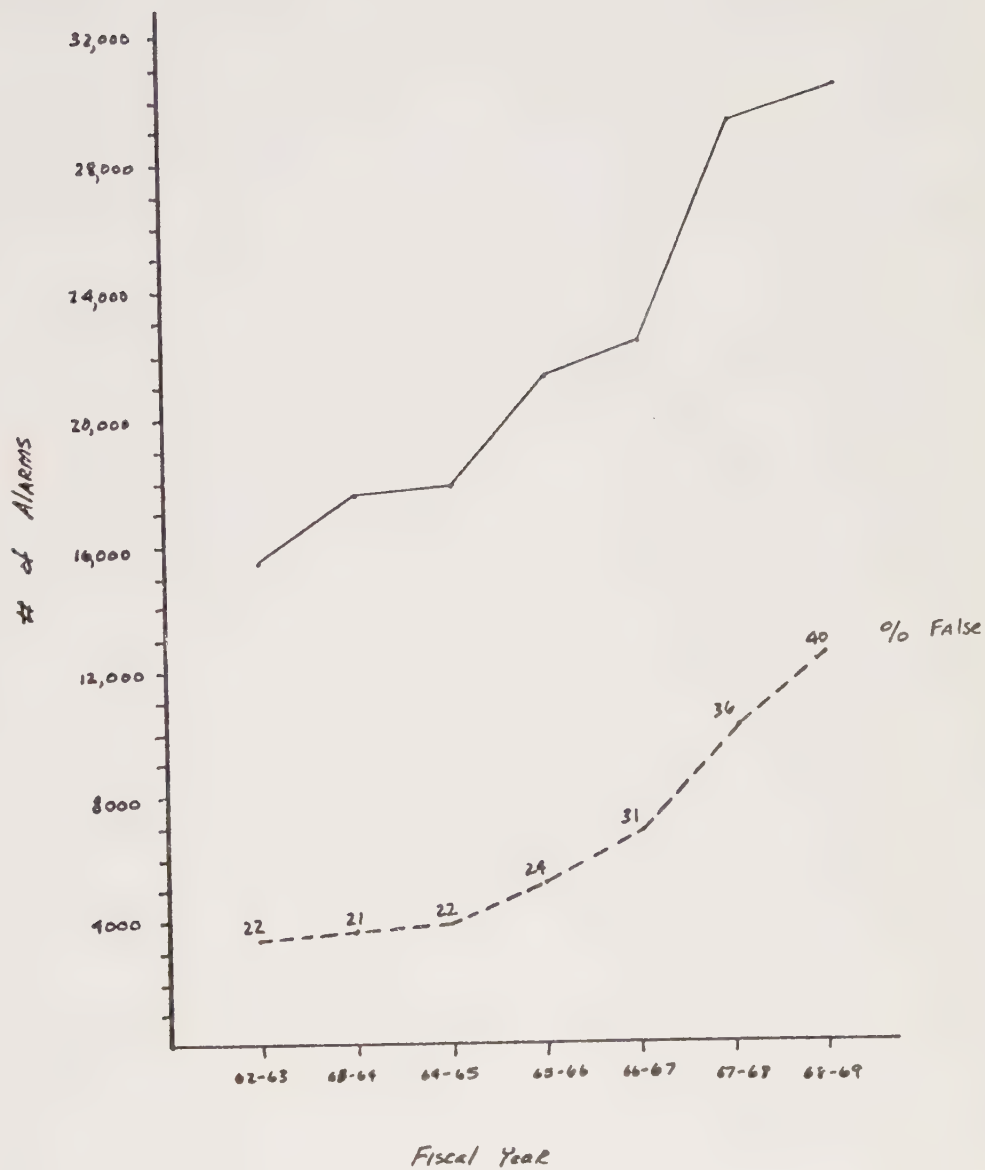


Figure II-45. NUMBER OF ALARMS FOR SAN FRANCISCO  
FIRE DEPARTMENT

Table II-26  
MAJOR CAUSE OF FIRE ALARMS

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Collision with fire hydrants	198
Motor fires	172
Automobile seats and upholstery	361
Children with matches	300
Dumps	140
PG & E wires and poles	294
Defective wiring in Buildings	293
False Alarms	12,594
Overheated stoves	173
Burned food on stove	489
Grass and rubbish	3,924
Incendiaries	363
Lockouts and lockins	522
Smell of gas	329
Smell of smoke	739
Bedding, mattress fires	342
Chair fires	124
Cigarette igniting combustibles	838
Rescues and assistance	845
Resuscitation	
Street washdowns	1,309
Leaking water pipes	667
Automobile wiring	298

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## A Problem

A "simple" solution to the problem of false alarms would be to remove all street fire alarm boxes. After all, wouldn't this eliminate 12,476 of the 12,594 false alarms? Or are false alarms a problem at all, since no fires occur? False alarms are a tremendous problem -- more than a casual observer can appreciate. False alarms are a problem for at least the following reasons:

1. Equipment responding to false alarms is unable to respond to genuine alarms.
2. Morale of personnel is damaged by having so much of their time wasted by someone else's "game".
3. The fireman's conception of the public he serves, and his conception of the public's attitude toward fire fighting, are undeniably damaged.
4. False alarms increase equipment responses, therefore accelerating equipment depreciation and the chances for accidents involving Fire Department vehicles.

The Fire Department estimates that each false alarm costs \$150. Thus, false alarms account for nearly 10% of the Fire Department's operating budget. The effect on morale and attitude are probably as devastating.

As a solution, street fire alarm boxes can be removed in selected areas. The effects of this action could be considerable, however. For a large proportion of the population, the street call box is the only link a citizen has to a gigantic community services structure. Regardless of their social or economic position, all persons get equal response from at least one agency, the San Francisco Fire Department.

It is particularly unfortunate that areas such as Bayview-Hunter's Point (Census L5A, L5B, L4) and Haight-Ashbury (Census J13, J14, J15, J16), which need to maintain contact with community services agencies, generate over 60% of all false alarms in San Francisco. In some cities, removal of street call boxes has been successful. However, it doesn't seem to be the best solution to the problem in San Francisco,

at least not yet. As an alternative, a concerted campaign together by community leaders and Fire Department personnel stationed in the area might be effective in reducing the number of false alarms. The campaign could include short demonstrations and presentations by one fireman and one community leader at a school or church group meeting. If this effort fails, then the only effective solution would be removal of those street alarm boxes from which most false alarms are turned in.

A number of neighborhoods, in recent years, have shown unexpected hostility to fire fighters. The hostile actions are probably expressions of disgust or contempt for what is felt by the people in the neighborhoods to be an unreachable city bureaucracy. To open lines of communication with the community which they serve, the Fire Department created the Community-Relations Bureau within the Division of Administration. It soon initiated a very successful school visitation program, during which companies visited various schools in their area, giving demonstrations of equipment and explaining the role of firemen in the community. This certainly is a step in the right direction, and the young bureau remains very dynamic. The function of this bureau would be immeasurably helped if each fireman, as well, could act as a kind of community relations officer for the Department. Or perhaps an officer at each station could be trained in general community relations, so that he could provide information for the citizens of the community he serves. This proposal, coupled with a suggestion that the public visit the station house in their area, could be of great help in re-establishing the Fire Department's image as friend as well as protector.

Successful community relations work can be very rewarding, as the Department has already found. The Fire Department will probably have to take the first step in reaching out to the

community. The interaction hopefully to be obtained after breaking the ice could quite easily lead to prevention of false alarms, prevention of a number of fires, and great rapport between the Fire Department and the community.

### Operations

Each alarm, whether false or valid, generates a large amount of data. At present, the data from each alarm is entered on forms, which are grouped by date and filed. This system effectively prevents any quick analysis or integration of data, and takes up a large amount of calculable space. The Fire Department admittedly needs a system for the recording and integration of data. Such a system would be invaluable in analyzing trends, finding best times for training, and determining hours of peak manpower demand, among other things. A data processing system of some sort should be established for use by the Fire Department. This item has been deleted from the final budget. The implementation of such a system would seem to be imperative when one examines the vast amounts of data kept by the Department.

The consulting firm of Gage-Babcock has recently completed a study of the Department which if implemented could seriously inhibit effective fire prevention. The key proposals of this study deal with a revision of the operational abilities of the Department. They propose a reduction of Engine Companies from 47 to 33, and of Truck Companies from 20 to 16. These reductions are based on pre-determined standards such as: each place in San Francisco should be within one mile of a fire station, but little overlap in areas, particularly in the area north of Market Street and east of Divisadero Street. This distribution has been made necessary both because of the size of structures in that area and because of the necessity to respond quickly and contain any fire in that area. The application of pre-determined standards to blanket areas such as the CBD of San Francisco

does not take into account any mediating factors, perhaps the most important of which is topography. A fire department can be beneficial in extinguishing fires only if it can reach an alarm in a very short time. Time is particularly critical in resuscitation alarms, of which the Department receives over 400 annually. Strict application of location standards as advocated by the Gage-Babcock study might lead to inadequate fire protection.

In summary, a need does exist to bring the Fire Department and the community it serves together again. This can be done directly by having officers and men seek out the community to "explain" the Fire Department, and it can be done indirectly by increasing the capabilities of the Department to respond quickly and effectively to all emergencies.



## G. HUMAN STATE

1. Introduction - The shortage that poses the greatest barrier in most of the ghettos in San Francisco is not an insufficient tax base, or the inferior educational system, the inadequate job opportunities, or substandard housing, but the absence of men with skills commensurate to the tasks faced in truly redeveloping the ghetto. Of course, this shortage is closely related to the other characteristics of the ghetto, indeed, it is the direct result of some of those characteristics. Nevertheless, it is the most important characteristic to be guided by when discussing strategies for enabling the people of the ghetto to be an effective agent in the redevelopment of their community.

(The term community will be used often in this discussion. In all cases it is taken to be geographically defined. For some areas, like the Sunnydale Housing Project, the "community" of Sunnydale is clearly differentiable from its surroundings. Other areas will not be so; in all cases the community extends as far as its residents percieve it to extend.)

Housing programs should be viewed as a vehicle for keeping the desired proportion of skilled residents within the community. That is, as a significant portion of the residents become economically capable of leaving the ghetto, living conditions attractive enough to keep them in the community must be available. The desirability and likelihood of attracting people from outside the community into attractive housing is questionable. How much they can become members of the community, appreciate its problems, and become involved is uncertain. To simply improve the tax base seems insufficient cause for justifying programs aimed at attracting people to the ghetto; the potential dangers of developing an isolated and significantly wealthier faction appear to outweigh the possible advantages.

In any event, the contribution possible from improved housing will not be significant in the immediate future. Housing programs and their appropriate phasing must be developed for each community, but it appears that for none of them will it be wise to implement such programs until other things are accomplished first.

1. Sunnydale

Physical State - Sunnydale is located in a rather picturesque setting along the northern edge of Visitation Valley. The project covers the gentle hillsides with 772 units of which 512 are inhabited by black families (as of June, 1970). 162 units house white families, 59 Latino, 22 Samoan and Philipino, 8 Oriental, and 9 Indian. There are four, three, two, and one bedroom units; in addition, there are a small number of studios for the elderly. Based upon the relative numbers of these units one can approximate the family size distribution as 2% of the families with more than 5 children, 20% with 4 or 5 children, 70% with 2 or 3 children, and 10% with no children or one child.

The units are two story split level structures, with living room, dining room, and kitchen downstairs, and bedrooms upstairs. Most are joined in linear complexes of four or six units.

Although the units need better upkeep, the condition of the houses is uniformly superior to that found in most other projects, particularly those found in Hunter's Point to the east. With sufficient financial outlay the interiors can be made reasonably attractive, but high noise level and similar inconveniences result from the crowded conditions.

Local facilities consist of a recreation room, small play yard and meeting rooms in the Housing Authority building. John McLaren Park, which borders the project on the north, provides large open spaces, a golf course, basketball courts, and an indoor swimming pool. Unfortunately, most

facilities are under-supervised and thus fall far short of providing the community centers which they should.

Sunnydale is an attractive project, compared to the alternatives open to its residents. There is considerable open space, both in the park and within the project. Though the open areas between buildings are nothing more than barren, trash cluttered fields they still present something better, in the eyes of many mothers, than the conditions in the Western Addition or Hunter's Point. Thus, though there is a turnover of 150-200 families per year, few units are ever empty and there is a relatively stable core of families who have lived in the project for two or more years. Many, in fact, leave the project only to return from the city.

Local Business and Unemployment - About 75% of the families in Sunnydale are supported entirely by welfare payments. A small number (about 5%) who are technically subemployed, are supported by a combination of welfare and income from a job. The existing labor force consists primarily of females from 18-60. They hold semi or unskilled jobs such as file clerks, domestics, and secretaries. The male component of the labor force is comprised of a small number of working husbands and a greater number of transient male residents. The men who hold regular jobs are predominantly unskilled (e.g., janitors, bus drivers, airport workers, etc.). There seems little indication of any significant changes in this labor force in the near future.

The matriarchal family structure does not vary from one racial group to another, excepting the small number of Indian families which tend to have both parents in the home. Likewise, the problems resulting from this situation and the prognosis for any future change differ little for blacks and whites. There is no reason to expect more families to stay together until the employment opportunities are such that the men can adequately support their wives. As long as men

cannot fill the role of a provider for their family there is little hope that they will break the now well established pattern of frustration and desertion.

There is no business within the project. A few small enterprises (e.g., liquor store, small market, etc.) are located on streets that border the project. The Little Village market, located at Sunnydale and Hahn on the periphery of the project has been closed down for over a year. It is a reasonably good sized neighborhood market that was at one time grossing about \$35,000 per month. However, a series of robberies caused the manager to give the operation up, and the owner of the property has been unsuccessful in getting it reopened. The problems in getting it reopened were compounded by the recent fire bombing of the drug store, two doors away.

The largest local industry is the Schlage Lock Works located about 10 blocks to the east on Bayshore Boulevard. A number of residents of the project work in the factory.

Community Services - Education - Almost all elementary school students attend John McLaren Elementary on Sunnydale, at the western edge of the project. Most of the youth go to Luther Burbank Junior High and Balboa or Wilson High School. By most local estimates, less than 50% finish high school (85% of all welfare children in San Francisco do not finish high school), and less than 10% ever go to college. Those who drop out of school usually don't stay in Sunnydale for very long. That probably holds equally for men and women, excepting women who have children and are less mobile.

The results of education in Sunnydale are the results of most ghetto educational systems. Students in high schools are often so incompetent at filling out applications that they cannot even apply for jobs and colleges without assistance. In a community acutely lacking in male leadership, it is tragic to find an elementary school in which almost all



the teachers are female and all the administrators are women. Attempts have been made by young men to infiltrate the elementary school in the role of playground supervisors and bus monitors for the junior high school. Those such programs have been very well received by school officials, insufficient funds have caused their gradual cessation.

In the high schools there is a complete inadequacy in providing students with practical training in matters of finance, interest and credit considerations. This reinforces a naiveté concerning such matters that thoroughly permeates such a welfare-conditioned community.

Crime - There has been a considerable reduction in certain types of crime in the past couple of years. According to many residents, malicious mischief, purse snatching, and open antagonism of police once reached such a state that unescorted women were unsafe on the streets and police cars were repeatedly vandalized and damaged.

Though such crimes have declined considerably, one recent incident will serve to illustrate the present state of the community. While allegedly beating a young black the police were trying to arrest, a pair of police found themselves in need of further assistance to disperse a crowd that had gathered during the fracas. When the resultant confrontation had reached substantial proportions, someone threw a molotov cocktail through the window of a local drug store resulting in its total destruction. Police and firemen were fired upon by snipers. The same pattern of arson and sniping was repeated the following night, and when the commotion had finally died down after three nights, antagonisms on all sides had been kindled. It remains to be seen how many Sunnydale residents were involved in the actual shooting, but it seems rather certain that some of its younger ones were.

Summation - The acute absence of men in the permanent family structure of Sunnydale is reflected in the leadership

evident in the community. Two distinct sets of community leaders are evident. The first is drawn from the remaining half of the conventional source of family authority -- the mothers. They are predominantly middle-aged women, most of whom have lived in Sunnydale for some years. They are predominantly white and view the community as an integrated one where blacks and whites face the same problems. It is interesting to note that most of these women express the view that the community is about one half black, one half white. The fact that the community was racially balanced only a few years ago no doubt contributes to this mistaken perception. It is also possible that there is some tendency to be reluctant to acknowledge that the whites are clearly the minority today in Sunnydale.

Nevertheless, most of the white middle-aged women active in community affairs consider the chief problem within the community to be one of pulling the various factions, including the young blacks, together. Though the actions and attitudes of some of the youth are viewed with disdain, the intent to cooperate is still strong.

The other group of leaders is the young blacks. Many of the young black men avow an allegiance with the Sons of Sunnydale, a community service organization. The Young Black Women for Action is a similar organization which draws many of its members from the young black mothers in the community. Most members of these groups have come to believe that white people outside the community will do little to help the plight of the poor black. They are very much into the black power attitude and, the men in particular, view violence as a tool to be used when other tools fail to achieve a desired concession. There is a basic feeling that white people have a debt to blacks that should be paid in cold cash, i.e., funding for programs which blacks will plan and implement.

Though there is some hostility and misgivings between

these two groups, they are very capable of banding together to present a unified community front in times of crisis. This is very apparent during the heated days in May following the destruction of the drug store and the response by the police.

A group that is conspicuously absent in the community organizations are the young whites. The explanation is reasonably simple. For some years young white men have been leaving Sunnydale at their earliest opportunity; many even split while they are still going to high school. White girls follow pretty much the same pattern except where constrained by children. The young white mothers living in the project share little of the activism of the young black women.

On the other hand, some young blacks who go to college continue to live in the project. In addition, many of the most effective community organizers are young black men who live outside Sunnydale, but work in the community via service organizations like Youth for Service or Community Health Service. They devote business and private hours to working with youth organizations. One conclusion seems clear. For some blacks, the identification with a nation-wide struggle for black unity and power is strong enough to keep them in the community by one means or another; these young men are still not a large majority of the young blacks, but their numbers are growing. There is no similar motivation for white youth to remain in the community. The result is, for anyone intent on organizing the youth, a community that appears not unlike most other areas of poor blacks.

There are signs of a growing sense of the need for community organizing in Sunnydale. The Citizen's League remains a focal point for the more active tenants, most of them female adults, who seek its auspices as the only established organization of its type. Though many youth are still apolitical and apathetic, the rise of the Sons of Sunnydale and

the Young Black Women marks a considerable change from the disjointed and isolated state of the black youth a few years ago. The decline in petty crimes, as noted above, may in some way be due to the ability of these groups to curtail such actions of individuals. It is too soon to forecast the fate of these later two organizations; many youth groups have come and gone during the past few years. Though they have rather broad support, they seem to lack any particular goals to which programs can be directed.

Given the two sets of leaders and their concomitant organizations, the question remains as to whether or not they can effectively unite in other than crisis situations. The barriers to such cooperation are those of race and generation. But, in Sunnydale at least, the latter seems to be the more formidable.

2. Mission District - Bounded roughly by the Central Freeway to the north, Market Street and Castro Street to the west, 30th Street and Alemany to the south, and the James Lick Freeway to Army Street and Third Street to 16th Street to the east, the Mission includes some 132,000 people by the latest estimates. Although the climate and terrain in the Mission are perhaps the most favorable in San Francisco, the area also has some of the city's worst problems. In terms of employment, housing and the physical environment, education, and health and social service needs, the quality of life is low. The dynamics of the Mission and the Bay Area tend to make problems in these areas worse.

The Mission traditionally has been the first home of many immigrants to the city. Since 1930, these immigrants have included large numbers of Mexican-Americans and Mexicans, Central and South Americans, as well as Orientals and people of the Pacific Islands in recent years. In addition, some American Indians have moved into the area as have some blacks leaving redevelopment areas in San Francisco. The generally



low skills and educational level of these people plus language problems have placed a premium on lower cost housing and low skill jobs in the Mission. Along with the decrease in low skill jobs and in particular the exodus of industry from San Francisco has come rising unemployment for the Mission, passing more than twice the national average.

Because most of the housing in the area was built twenty to forty years ago and reflects an extremely intensive use of land, the housing quality is deteriorating in an environment that was designed twice as dense as the rest of the city. Too little lower cost housing plus a continuing influx of people has led to overcrowding well above the city average. The closeness of the downtown business district is resulting in a decrease in lower cost housing as middle income people compete for housing; the opening of BART is expected to accentuate this trend.

The area schools have been unable to handle either the increasing numbers of students without overcrowding or the special education and language problems of the minority students. The result has been a very high dropout rate with teenagers leaving school without being able to acquire skills or education sufficient to escape the ghetto.

A rising crime rate, particularly juvenile crime, reflects in part the inability of the young to escape the ghetto and the deteriorating social conditions within it. The crime in turn further aggravates strained police-community relations.

Health and social services are in general inadequate, not readily available, or not matched to the needs of the people. There is a lack of open space and corresponding recreation facilities.

If the influx of low skilled minorities to the Mission continues in the absence of new low cost housing, jobs and training, educational and social services to meet their needs, the social conditions and quality of life can be

expected to become worse. On the other hand, services which meet the people's needs will allow economic and cultural mobility to develop and open the way to a better life.

Community - The large majority of the Mission population is white, containing large numbers of people of Spanish or Latino heritage. However, migration and immigration of non-white peoples to San Francisco and the relatively low rent in the Mission is carrying the area toward a more equal mixture of white and nonwhite people. The ethnic groups other than the Latinos tend to be somewhat segregated in enclaves. The blacks live mostly on Protrero Hill and Bernal Heights; the 5-7000 American Indians tend to live around 16th and Mission; and the Samoans seem to have a community of their own. The part of Mission east of South Van Ness has the heaviest concentration of persons of Spanish surname. The population shift in the Mission has resembled and will probably continue to resemble that of other central cities or ghettos -- an influx of poor, low-skilled nonwhites and an outflux of more mobile whites.

The Mission is expanding in population in addition to the above exchanges in population. But, the effect of an influx of low-income people hunting housing that is cheap together with middle-income people hunting housing that is close to the downtown business district is that the supply of lower cost housing is being bought off the market by the middle class. So the poor community becomes more and more dense and overcrowded, a trend that is expected to continue and be accentuated by the opening of BART stations at 16th and 24th and Mission. This continued pressure on the lower cost housing may start a migration out to Daly City or some other area in search of cheap housing.

The adult crime rate in the Mission as indicated by arrests seems to remain about constant at the city average; the only figures are for the period 1957 to 1963. However,

juvenile arrests are increasing steadily, with felonies accounting for over one-third of the arrests. In 1960, the number of juvenile court cases per 1000 population was 55 for San Francisco as a whole but 90 for the central Mission. This increase in juvenile crime is a reflection of the social and economic problems of the ghetto, and is particularly evident in the increase in mass disorder such as the gang wars of the youth. Police-community relations have degenerated to open antagonism as standard police tactics in inhibiting the gangs have been perceived as examples of community harassment and police brutality. The very appearance of the police can provoke a violent response by a street gang.

The ownership of community property is mixed. There are many small shops, ususally with living quarters above them, that are owned and operated by Mission residents. On the other hand, the large department stores and shops along Mission Street are part of city-wide or larger businesses. The ownership of housing is mixed, but there is a large percentage of rental housing with many absentee landlords. The latter situation is reinforced by the fact that many Mission residents come to the area planning to stay only as long as it takes to move upward economically and socially, though many are trapped by the economic conditions of the ghetto.

There are many community organizations in the Mission with a large percent of them being at least nominal members of the Mission Coalition Organization (MCO) which serves as both a planning and coordinating body for the local organizations and a political pressure group representing the interests of the Mission residents. In its latter function, the MCO appears to be quite representative with exception of absentee landlords and some other owners of Mission rental housing. The MCO is effectively becoming a quasi-legal local government, especially in its function of planning the Model

Cities program for the Mission. Organizations that are members of the MCO and/or seek to deal with the problems of the area include Arriba Juntos, the American Indian Center, Centro Social Obrero, Horizons Unlimited, Mission Rebels, Mission Street Merchants Association, Protestant and Roman Catholic Parish councils, and many other block clubs and civic organizations. (See Appendix II.C for other member groups.)

The MCO and the labor unions appear representative of the major political forces in the Mission. The social organization of the area is exemplified by the many voluntary organizations. However, the street gangs appear to be the most significant organization of the ghetto youth.

Demographic Data - Population totals for San Francisco and the Economic Opportunity Council (EOC) Mission Target Area<sup>1</sup> are listed below.

	City Totals <sup>2</sup>	Mission <sup>2</sup>	Mission(1968) <sup>3</sup>
Total pop.	740,316	123,749	132,100
White	604,403	112,747	118,900
Spanish surname	51,602	22,139	23,800
Black	74,383	6,212	6,700
Total nonwhite	135,913	11,002	13,200
By ages			
15-19	42,000	7,599	
45-64	199,151	29,388	
65+	93,608	14,502	

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<sup>1</sup>The EOC Mission Target Area is comprised of Census Tracts J-18, K-6, L-1, L-2, L-3, M-1, M-2, M-3, M-4, N-1 through N-15.

<sup>2</sup>Source: 1960 U.S. Census

<sup>3</sup>San Francisco Health Department estimate (1968).



Population totals for the city and the Model Cities Mission Neighborhood are listed below.

	City Total <sup>2</sup>	Mission <sup>4</sup>	Percent of City Total
Total population	740,316	51,144	6.9
White	604,403	47,370	7.8
Black	74,383	1,578	2.1
Other nonwhite	61,530	2,196	3.6
Foreign born	142,531	11,237	7.9
Born in Mexico	6,200	2,083	34.6
Population density			
Total housing units	310,559	21,330	6.9
Housing units per acre	13.5	25.7	
Number overcrowded	19,060	1,983	10.4
Percent overcrowded	6.5	9.3	

The following health statistics are listed for Mission (Model Cities boundaries).

	City Total	Mission <sup>4</sup>
Infant deaths per 1,000 live births (1963)	25	20.9
Incidence of tuberculosis per 1,000 pop. (1960)	0.8	7.8

Housing - The Mission was the first part of San Francisco to be developed. People from throughout the world have settled here. In 1960, the population in the Mission Model Neighborhood (the Model Cities boundaries, which are Army Street to the Central Freeway and Delores Street to the James Lick Freeway) was 51,144 and the total number of housing units was 21,330. However, many buildings, both non-residential and residential, have suffered deterioration from age as well

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<sup>4</sup>Source: 1968 Model Cities Application. The Mission Model Neighborhood is comprised of Census Tracts N-1, N-2, N-7, N-8, N-9, N-10, K-6, L-2, L-3.

as neglect.

As the Mission was first developed, there were no planning controls or building regulations. Therefore, many defects such as faulty foundations, unsafe wiring, inadequate toilet and kitchen facilities for each housing unit, and illegal structural alterations still exist in this area.

The residents in the Mission are confronted with a great problem of inadequate supply of good housing at low and moderate cost. Many schools, parks, and other facilities are overcrowded, run-down, and out-of-date. The movement of people from abroad and elsewhere in the U.S. into the Mission continues and many immigrants live with their families or friends, so that even more overcrowding in the Mission can be anticipated in later years.

According to the data of the 1960 Census, about 16% of the housing units in the Mission (Model Cities) were judged substandard. These units were deficient in physical condition, in maintenance, in plumbing facilities, or in a combination of these factors. Substandard units were concentrated in and near the industrial sections which are situated in the eastern part of the area, mostly centering on the Harrison Street railroad spur line.

Much of the Mission housing dates from pre-World War II. Eighty-seven percent of its stock is over 20 years old. The aging stock of the Mission was 16% substandard in 1960, which was 10% of the city's substandard units, 99% of these were built before 1930. The deterioration of the Mission residences is due partly to the fact that many of original tenants, primarily Irish, Italian, German, and Russian in origin, have moved to newer, more prosperous neighborhoods but have retained ownership of the Mission buildings.

Recent in-migration trends have shown not only an increase in low-income, low-skilled persons to the Mission but a substantial increase in single persons and a decline in the number of families. Their needs are best met through

multi-unit structures, since high-density land usage allows lower rents.

In the Mission area, the need to improve the living environment is apparent. Low cost housing must be provided for the immigrants who are expected to settle in the area. Attention not only should be given to their needs, but a primary concern should be improvement of the living condition of the present inhabitants. Financial assistance programs to encourage home ownership and rehabilitation of dwellings are inevitable. It is expected that the overall quality of the Mission housing stock can be raised. Dwellings for single family units are essential. Large-scale housing construction in the Mission Model Neighborhood must be promoted, designed, financed, and operated so as to encourage racial and economic integration in the Mission.

The living environment is contingent not solely on physical accommodations but also on the quality of economic, employment, educational, health, and related services and facilities. Efforts to deal with problems in any of these areas must be coordinated and gain support by all community members.

Education - The effect the overcrowding and the inadequacy of the educational programs in the Mission is reflected in a high dropout rate, possibly around 50% of the students. There seems to be two major sources of problems. The first is the poor educational background of the school-age immigrants, often coupled with a language problem in which no or very poor English is spoken in the home. The minority students are often unable to keep up in a regular class and get further behind without special assistance. The second is the lack of curricula that meets the needs of ghetto students; the latter is simply a lack of vocational courses appropriate to the current job market. The educational system does not present the minority student a way

out of the ghetto.

Some compensatory programs are being carried under Title I funding in addition to Head Start programs. However, the public education programs need to be revised to better serve the ghetto student. In addition, better economic and social integration, particularly in the lower grades, to reduce the isolation of the ghetto is needed. Currently, bussing is carried out only to relieve overcrowding.

An extensive tutorial program for the Mission is coordinated from the Mission Family Center, 3011 24th Street, which includes seven volunteer or federally sponsored organizations as well as tutors from Bay Area colleges. Also, organizations such as Horizons Unlimited and the Mission Rebels have special efforts to keep potential dropouts in school and to encourage dropouts to return to school. These organizations try to counter the attitude of many Mission youth that school is where "you do your time."

In 1960, 22% of the people over 25 in the Mission had not completed the eighth grade; 63% had not finished high school. For the central Mission, these percentages were somewhat higher. These figures reflect in part a large number of older immigrants from areas where education was traditionally low; many of these same immigrants have difficulty speaking English. English language classes for adults are taught by the Mission English Language Center and the Mission Family Center.

Employment - Present situation. Unemployment is a major problem in the Mission. Incomes are relatively low. In 1960 there were 20% of the Mission families (Model Cities area) with incomes less than \$3,000; for the larger Mission area, this figure was 17%. More than 75% of the Spanish-surname families have incomes at or below the poverty level. Language barriers, lack of skills, and unfamiliarity with the highly competitive ways of the city have contributed to



unemployment and under employment. Lack of education is a major part of the whole problem. More than 25% of the Mission Model Neighborhood (Model Cities area) residents over 25 yrs. old had less than an eighth grade education in 1960.

In San Francisco, many plants in the older industrial areas have relocated to larger sites outside the city. This trend has reduced the number of jobs available to skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled workers. Therefore, this change of location of plants has decreased the accessibility of jobs to the Mission residents. The following table<sup>1</sup> shows the percentage of workers in the East Mission (the area east of South Van Ness) in various employment categories as compared with the rest of the city.

Table II-27  
COMPARISON OF EAST MISSION WORKERS  
IN VARIOUS EMPLOYMENT CATEGORIES WITH THE REST OF  
SAN FRANCISCO

Category	East Mission	City
Managerial, Proprietary, Professional, Technical	9%	23%
Craftsmen, Foremen, Skilled Workers	42%	23%
Clerical Workers, Sales	25%	34%
Service	14%	13%
Domestics, Laborers	11%	7%

Entry level standards in industry generally have responded to the rising educational level of the larger employment community; therefore, this standard constitutes a screening effect to the majority of the workers with inadequate educations.

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<sup>1</sup>Source: 1968 Model Cities Application for the Mission based on 1960 Census data.

If percentages from a 1966 Department of Labor survey for a Filmore-Mission section are modified to reflect both the present employment situation and the "moderating" effect of the entire Mission, numbers of unemployed can be estimated. Of the 132,100 estimated to be living in the Mission (1968 figure), roughly 90% are white (including 18% Spanish surname), 5% are black, and 5% are other non-white. Of this number, 60,000 are estimated to be in the labor force in 1970. Unemployment is estimated to be 10%, resulting in 6,000 unemployed in the Mission. The number of teenagers 14-19 yrs. of age is estimated to be 13,000 to 26,000. For an unemployment rate of 35% with 50% in the work force, the unemployment number includes from 2,200 to 4,400 unemployed teenagers.

Subemployment includes 13% working only part-time and 7% earning less than \$60 per week. In numbers, there are 7,800 in the former category and 4,200 in the latter.

In terms of income, the 1960 percentages of 17% of the families having incomes less than \$3,000 and 26% having incomes less than \$4,000 per year translate roughly to 5,300 and 8,000 families respectively.

Based on the 1966 survey, 50% or 3,000 of the unemployed had not finished high school; less than 20% or 1,200 of the unemployed had not completed the eighth grade. The major problem perceived by the unemployed in finding a job was the lack of education and training. Next to the list of perceived problems came health problems, followed by personal problems.

As for attitudes toward training, 75% (4,500) of the unemployed would be willing to take on-the-job training, 50% (3,000) would be willing to return to school if necessary but preferred on-the-job training, 25% (1,500) would live away from home for job training, and 20% (1,200) would move to another area to find a job.

In addition to the statistics, it should be noted that a significant percent of the unemployed teenagers probably have income from crime. The environment of the youth and the present social ethics are such that it is quite difficult if not impossible for a teenager to perceive that staying in school or getting a job (that is, making an "honest living") is at all advantageous, desirable, or possible.

A number of job training and employment assistance programs in the Mission represent hopeful signs, but are not perceived as having a significant impact in relation to the magnitude of the unemployment problem.

Police - A long conversation with three members of the Ralph Park gang -- the gang where all the action is -- revealed some of their views. This was later supplemented in the May 2nd seminar with the Mission Coalition when one 17 yr. old quite amply displayed the Mission High ethic or "to become a better thief." Most of the people the three knew made their living by stealing or hustling stolen goods; this included these guys, who usually lifted all that was not bolted down, and a number of things, e.g., auto parts, that were. However, it was easier and quicker to steal the whole car rather than just strip it. They sold most of their loot right in the Mission. The ethic the guys advanced was a mixed one; the way to get ahead was to become a better thief. At the same time, the guys felt trapped and realized that they both had and would have sort of a bad life. But they had only a dim view of how life could be if you did not grow up in the ghetto. The movie Popi was an easy one for them to identify with. These guys, all high school dropouts, displayed little interest in the MCO.

The stories about the police followed a now familiar line of police tactics ranging from simple harassment to clear brutality. Some examples were the pigs' clubbing a man with

a broken back, a cops' shooting a dog which had attacked him in the midst of a group of kids, taking kids for rides across town and making them walk back -- a cooling off measure -- illegal searches and busting people who complain, planting grass on kids to bust them, taking \$90 from one guy on an illegal search; all of these incidents were reported in detail as personal experiences or incidents witnessed by the three.

On the other hand, there was the tactic recognition that some of the police were reasonable and even necessary for the protection of the community. The police were regarded as a watch dog who makes stealing more interesting work and as a big brother to keep things from getting too far out of line. Given that police are a necessary evil, more cops should appear in the form of "Mod Squad" cops with some helmeted types for the rougher kids. The Mission High ethic (better thief) was viewed as having the superior position in any competition between group ethics. The opinion advanced was that one had best indoctrinate the kids to be exposed to the thief ethic in the socially acceptable view while they were in the impressionable environment of grade school; junior high and particularly high school is too late. In high school one learns from the older ones how to hot-wire cars and other useful procedures.

In essence, the police represent social control -- a control that is tacitly recognized in some areas by the gangs, such as murder, arson, and other crimes of great destruction and violence. However, control of "borrowing" cars, small-

theft, and other "useful employment" is regarded as competition; that is, the cops vs. a perfectly acceptable style of life. It should be noted that while part of this conflict could be written off to human nature, there are factors beyond the control of Mission residents which make crime an acceptable way of life. Not the least of these is the lack



of opportunity to do something else and the isolation of the kids from conditions that lead to middle-class values or values acceptable to the middle class (translate middle class as dominant culture). This will be covered in more detail in the discussion of the gangs.

The police attitude and police is that other half of the framework necessary to understand the conflict. The big-city cop traditionally is a long way from being a peace keeper or traffic director (and perhaps these functions would be better separate). In as much as violent crime has been a particularly enduring part of the culture of U.S. cities, the police have been as violent as the crimes they regulate. The police violence is nothing new; as long as it was the uneducated and inarticulate lower class that performed the crimes, the middle class could easily overlook the violence. As certain "crimes" have become more acceptable to part of the articulate middle class (civil disobedience, smoking grass), police brutality was suddenly discovered. This coupled with a switch in emphasis of the higher courts to human rights (civil rights) over property rights -- an orientation, one should note, shared by only a fraction of dominant culture -- leave the police quite out of sorts with parts of the city. Charged in part with leveling the gun at criminals and with no one caring who else got hurt, the police rarely developed such niceties as community relations with ghetto areas. Harassment was and is regarded as fair play by the police. With the rise in crime (from degenerating social conditions) causing most of the middle class to urge the police to crack down on crime and step up the body count, the police response has been to step up the use of harassment, illegal searches, etc. plus general use of force and violence to accomplish these ends. These tactics, indeed traditional, are viewed as quite acceptable by the police and a substantial part of the dominant culture.

It appears that the Mission gangs are quite aware of the growing revulsion with police brutality; also, not being quite the hardened criminals, convicts, murderers and other subhumans who might not resent police brutality, they are quite provoked by it. Their only crime is essentially growing up in a ghetto. The problem does not appear to have the proportions of New York and Washington ghetto areas, but again, San Francisco is much smaller and newer.

In general terms, any solution will have to include a change in police policies and attitudes toward the Mission residents as a whole and the youth in particular and a relief of the social conditions that breed crime. However, the cost of doing this may be high, both in terms of resources that now must be shared with a formally "deprived" sector and in terms of patience and restraint necessary to enrich and yet control a culture during the process of rehabilitation. On the police side of it, this means more education and careful selection of the police. Social control affected by police participation in the community seems to have much more promise than force from the outside.

Street Gangs - A large percentage of the Mission youth have a social structure which evidently serves the same purposes that the high school clubs, fraternities, and athletic clubs do for the middle class. This structure consists of street gangs which seem to occur every two blocks; for instance, there is the 25th Street gang, the 23rd Street gang, the Ralph Park gang, Excelsior gang, and the Cortland gang. The primary function of the gangs appears to be to fight -- to conduct gang wars. As had been noted in an earlier survey of San Francisco, the teenagers are a lot more conscious of turf than the adults.

The gangs go to war over imagined, rumored, or actual offenses to the integrity of the gang, as it were. The resulting fighting seems to be either to save face or an actual

desire to fight. That is, mediating efforts work on occasion if one gang is getting ready to fight because there is a rumor that another gang is doing likewise; neighborhood mediators, perhaps including some of the special police, have on occasion brought the two gangs together and settled their real or imagined differences without fighting.

The gangs serve as a base and a training ground for much of the car borrowing and other thefts, as well as a nucleus for the "hard" drug culture. Through the gangs teenagers find an outlet for the time and energy that middle class kids expend in education, radical student movements, and sports. That is, the gangs represent a viable alternative to getting an "education," a job, or any other of the symptoms of the Puritan work ethic. The schools do not seem to present any relevant material -- no one that finishes high school and goes on to college stays around the Mission to be a visible sign of success; jobs are few and hard to get at the time most kids drop out of high school, the better thief ethic seeming perhaps more interesting than that educational one that Mission High might be presumed to have. The high schools are regarded as a place where one does his time.

After several years of getting busted by the cops on various offenses while a member of a gang, the chances of getting a job are quite remote. It is into this environment that EOC dangles 100 summer jobs. Perhaps it is not surprising that several people were killed last year (1969) in fighting over the 100 jobs, for there are probably 5,500 unemployed teenagers in the Mission in the summer who would qualify for the jobs. This is a classic example of a band-aid program doing more harm than good. That is to say that if 5,500 jobs were offered, there would be 5,500 teenagers working and all problems with respect to jobs would be over; many of the teenagers in the gangs are too far out of the system to be "bought off" with the offer of a job. In the

words of one Mission teenager, perhaps he would have listened (to a police officer -- spokesman of the establishment) at the age of seven or eight.

It is after the age of seven or eight that ethic of the youth subculture begins to dominate; that is, the ethic that the educational system offers nothing, the action is in the streets, and the rest of the world is inconceivable. Perhaps by junior high, the "action" includes ambitions of joining in the car borrowing and other diversions. With high school, and in particular Mission High, may come on-the-job training in these areas of interest, the skills being passed along from the previous class or some of the more advanced peers. Then comes the realization that while a start has been made, to succeed in life one must become a better thief. If one resists this better-thief ethic and the previous small-time activities, there is still the problem of finding the motivation to stay in high school, of seeing that high school is not a complete waste of time, and of perceiving that finishing high school may open up opportunities. For ghetto youth, there is not direct relationship between finishing high school and success; the job market is still depressed for one with general high school skills in the Mission. The end result is that the most viable alternative a teenager may see growing up in the Mission is to drop out of high school and join a gang to have some fun.

As might be expected, parents and adults in general in the Mission deplore the gangs, seeing some form of the Puritan work ethic as the more desirable style of life. The gangs are viewed as making living conditions in the Mission more unpleasant. Although the parents wishes may have some restraining effect, their sentiments tend to be written off as "generation gap" conflict. The youth subculture remains dominant for the teenagers.



## Appendix II-A

### A Joint Planning Program

The program for redeveloping Butchertown is the product of close collaboration between Agency staff and public and private groups. Private groups include the following:

- The Bayview-Hunter's Point Joint Housing Committee which represents residents of the area and which has participated in planning for the area.
- The Greater San Francisco Chamber of Commerce which has contributed both money and substantial research data for project planning.
- Businessmen of the Project Area who supplied data on the nature of their businesses and who have met with the Agency staff singly or together during planning.
- The Butchertown Home Owners and Tenants Association.
- The Beekhuis Committee, a subcommittee of the Blythe-Zellerbach group which has supported and assisted the Agency staff in Butchertown planning.
- S.P.U.R. (San Francisco Planning and Urban Renewal Association).

Public groups include the following:

- The San Francisco Department of City Planning
- The San Francisco Department of Public Works
- The San Francisco Port Authority
- The California State Division of Highways
- The Office of the Mayor which administers a special program, funded by the U.S. Economic Development Administration, for measuring the extent and nature of unemployment and underemployment in the area and for devising training programs to equip the residents of the Bayview-Hunter's Point area for the jobs to be created in the redeveloped Butchertown. PACT (Plan of Action for Challenging Times) is carrying out this study for the Mayor's Office.

Western Addition Project Area Committee

Urban Renewal Handbook

HUD-Wash., D.C.

RHA 7217.1

Local Public Agency Administration

Chapter 5. Citizen Participation

Section 2. Project Area Committee

This is WAPAC

1. Establishment of Project Area Committee

- a. Project Involving Residential Rehabilitation. A Project Area Committee (PAC), made up of residents of the project area, shall be established for each urban renewal project in which residential rehabilitation activities are contemplated.
- b. Other Urban Renewal Projects. Although not a program requirement, the establishment of a PAC is encouraged for all other urban renewal projects in which residential rehabilitation activities may not be contemplated. The LPA shall support and work with the PAC as set forth below.

2. Composition of PAC

- a. The PAC shall be established in cooperation with local residents and groups. It shall be representative of a fair cross section of the residents of the urban renewal area and shall adopt no financial deterrents to membership or participation by residents of the urban renewal area.
- b. Where an existing neighborhood organization in the project area either meets the requirements for a PAC or adapts itself to meet them, it may serve as the PAC. Other neighborhood organizations which may exist or be formed in the project area shall relate to the LPA through PAC. The PAC shall be the forum for these organizations to participate in the project.

3. Relationship Between LPA and PAC

- a. The LPA shall work closely with the PAC to assure that project residents participate in the formulation and execution of plans for renewal of the area and improvement of the condition of its residents.
- b. Sufficient information about the project shall be

made available to project residents to enable them to participate knowledgeably.

- c. The LPA may provide the PAC with necessary technical assistance either by the provision of staff personnel or by contracting with consultants who will provide services to the PAC. The LPA must assure that the PAC has the capacity to participate in the formulation and execution of plans for renewal of the area and improvement of the condition of its residents.
  - d. The LPA may also make arrangements with the PAC for the PAC to assist in the utilization of residents in various capacities in the project such as interviewers or relocation aides. Arrangements may include the PAC's selecting residents or setting up training programs for them.
- 4. Urban Renewal Projects in Model Neighborhoods. The PAC requirements do not apply to urban renewal projects in model neighborhoods under the Model Cities Program. In cases of urban renewal projects in areas being planned as model neighborhoods, Model Cities guidelines and performance standards for citizen participation will apply.
  - 5. Eligible Costs. Eligible costs include amounts to cover the LPA's providing the PAC with necessary technical assistance, administrative and secretarial staff, and office space and equipment. Costs of contracts with the PAC for employment of project residents to perform necessary work in planning and execution of the project area are also eligible.
  - 6. Submission Requirements. Information about the PAC shall be included in the Report on Citizen Participation submitted with the Survey and Planning Application (Checklist Code No. R 117) and with Part I of the Application for Loan and Grant (Checklist Code R 217). If not previously submitted, the report is also required to be submitted with any revised Survey and Planning Application and Amendatory Application for Loan and Grant for an urban renewal project involving residential rehabilitation. (See RHA 7206.1, Project Applications, Chapter 1, Section 1 for Code No. R 117 and Chapter 2, Section 1 for Code No. R 217).
  - a. Survey and Planning Application. The report on Citizen Participation submitted with the Survey and Planning Application shall include the following (See RHA 7206.1, Project Applications, Chapter 1):

## Appendix II-C

### Member Organizations Of The MCO

All Nations Church of God  
AFT Local 61--MCO Alliance Committee  
American G. I. Forum  
Asociacion Educacional Hispano Americana  
Ayuda Social Catolica Salvadorena  
Agrupacion de la Zona  
Bernal Heights Ladies Club  
Bethany Methodist Church  
Buena Vista Block Club  
Bryant School Area Community Organization  
Casa Hispana de Bellas Artes  
Catholic Council for the Spanish Speaking  
Centro Social Obrero  
Circulo Latino de San Juan  
Comite Civico Cultural Cubano  
Consumer Action Council  
COBRA  
Centro Colombiano de San Francisco, Inc.  
Capp Street Association  
Delano Support Committee  
Deportivo Moctezuma  
East Mission Action Council  
East Mission United Neighborhood Youth Organization  
El Buen Pastor Church  
East + West of Castro Improvement Club  
Filipino Community of San Francisco  
First Samoan Congregational Church  
Friends of HELP  
Filipino American Mission Organization  
Full Gospel Revival Temple  
Gran Fraternidad Universal, Fundacion del Dr. de la Ferriere  
Grace Senior Center  
Grupo Latino de San Pablo  
Holly Courts Tenants Union  
Horizons Unlimited  
Humane Society for Tenants  
ILWU Local 10  
Junipero Serra Improvement Association  
Junta Hispana de Real Estate Brokers  
La Iglesia de Dios  
LAICA  
Latin American Mission Homeowners Improvement Association  
LULAC  
Lebanon Presbyterian Church  
Lily of the Valley Church  
Latin American Baseball League  
Latin American Student Organization  
La Raza Legal Defense



## Member Organizations Of The MCO (Cont.)

Marshall School-Community Organization  
Men of St. Paul's  
MAPA  
MACABI  
Mission Area Parents  
Mission Area Youth Organization  
Mission English Language Center  
Mission Street Merchants Association  
Mission Headstart Teachers  
Mission Home Owners  
Mission Neighborhood Health Center--Model Cities Committee  
Mission Parent Policy Advisory Committee  
Mission Rebels  
Mission Strike Support Committee  
Mission United Presbyterian Church  
Mission Welfare Rights Organization  
Montes' House of House English Program  
MANY  
Mission Family Center Workers  
New Careers  
Northern Utah District Residents Association  
New Testament Church of God  
Olivet Presbyterian Church  
Organizacion Latino Americana  
OPMLA  
OBECA  
Painters Local 4  
PAST  
Philippine American Cultural Foundation  
Potrero Hill Residents and Homeowners Council  
RAP  
State College--Mission Club  
St. James Sociedad Catolica Guadalupana  
St. Johns Episcopal Church  
St. John the Evangelist Parish Council  
St. Johns Lutheran Church  
St. Josephs Guadalupe Society  
St. Kevins Catholic Church  
St. Kevins Teen Club  
St. Peters Parish Council  
St. Teresas Parish Council  
Teen-Agents for Action  
Twenty-Fourth Street Tenants Association  
Second Spanish Baptist Church  
St. Charles School  
Twenty-Fifth + Folsom Tenants Union  
United Neighborhood Organization  
Unity Latin and American Laborers  
Upper Noe Valley Concerned Citizens  
Union de Inquilinos de la Bryant y 22nd  
Upper Valley Street Block Club

Appendix II-D

SOURCES FOR RECENT TRENDS IN SAN FRANCISCO LABOR MARKET

Sources: Joeseeph Hall  
Assistant Housing Specialist  
San Francisco Redevelopment Agency  
  
Mark Buell  
Special Assistant to the Executive Director  
San Francisco Redevelopment Agency  
  
Benson Hattem  
Affirmative Action Officer  
San Francisco Redevelopment Agency

REVISED SAN FRANCISCO REDEVELOPMENT AGENCY  
EQUAL OPPORTUNITY POLICY

Unexplored source: Acklin Thibeaux  
Apprenticeship Opportunity  
Foundation  
1122 Market Street  
San Francisco, California  
94102  
Telephone: 415 621-9712

## Appendix II-E

### UNEMPLOYMENT MODEL

The purpose of the unemployment model is to investigate the effects of school output, migration, training programs, and job availability upon the unemployment situation in San Francisco poverty areas. The description that follows is of the model as it currently exists. Since the model is still in a preliminary state of development, it is likely to be modified and expanded as the problem becomes better understood and more data becomes available.

People in the model are characterized on the basis of language proficiency, high school diploma or equivalent, and blue or white collar skill. In a more general version of the model people would also be characterized on the basis of age, sex, and race. The current model can be thought of as being applicable to one age group, one sex, and one race or racial mixture. The numbers that were used to exercise the model were intended to correspond to 20-29 year old males having the racial composition of San Francisco's poverty areas. The eight categories used in the model are shown in Table II-28. It should be noted that some possible combinations, such as high school diploma but no language proficiency, were eliminated on the grounds that they were inconsistent.

A person's category determines the jobs for which he can compete in the sense of meeting the basic requirements of the job. The category variables do not, however, reflect a broad range of factors that have a bearing upon whether a person will actually be able to obtain and hold a job. These factors include such things as appearance, speech, medical, legal, and child-care needs, punctuality, and regularity. While the model does not attempt to represent these factors in any detail, it does recognize their existence by considering job seekers to be qualified or unqualified.

Table II-28

## UNEMPLOYMENT MODEL BY SKILLS, DIPLOMA, AND LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

CATEGORY	SKILL	DIPLOMA	LANGUAGE
1	No	No	No
2	No	No	Yes
3	No	Yes	Yes
4	Blue	No	No
5	Blue	No	Yes
6	Blue	Yes	Yes
7	White	No	Yes
8	White	Yes	Yes



A diagram of the model is shown in Fig. II-46. The Unemployed Pool is described in terms of the numbers of people in each of the eight categories and the fraction of qualified people in each category. The arrows into and out of the Unemployed Pool represent flows of people to and from other parts of the model. The model considers the flow that occurs during a year so that the Unemployed Pool is updated once a year. The various parts of the model are described in the following sections.

#### Schools and External

Sub-models for these two parts of the model have not been developed. For purposes of exercising the model estimates were made of the SU and EU flow rates for each category and the values assumed not to change from year to year. It should be noted that the EU flow rate is the net flow of migration in both directions.

#### Training Programs

This part of the model was built from an analysis of the CAMPS\* report on existing training programs in the San Francisco poverty areas. In this section we will describe the logic of the sub-model. The relation with the existing data will be found in the description of the computer runs.

The main idea of the training programs sub-model is to analyze the training programs as modifying the categories to which the unemployed people belong. For instance a person from category 1 having no skill, and no language proficiency, could follow a language program (L). Should the individual successfully complete the training period, he would be considered as now belonging to category 2, i.e., as having no skill, no basic education but a language proficiency. The same individual from category 1 could follow another sort of training program (L, E), that both taught

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\* Coordinated Area Manpower Planning Studies.

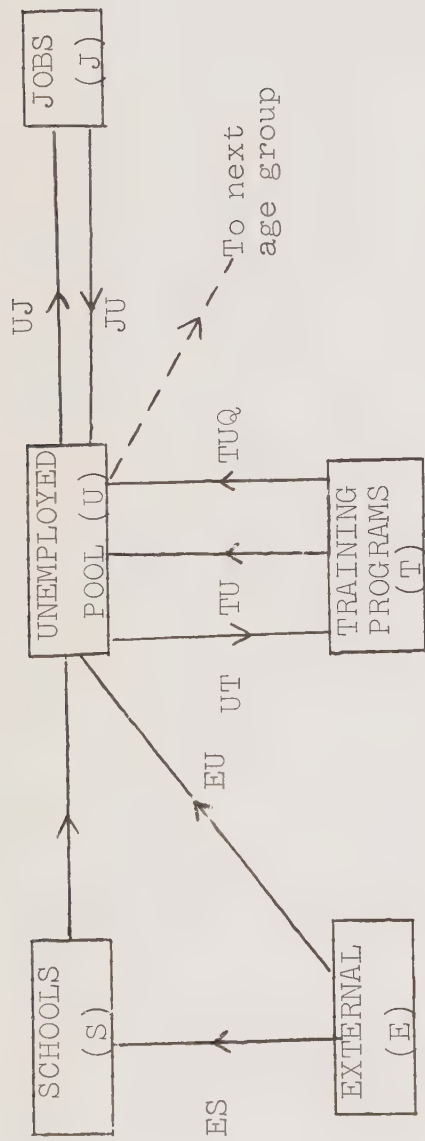


Figure II-46. UNEMPLOYMENT MODEL

the language and gave a basic education. Should he be successful, he would then be considered as belonging to category 3, no skill but basic education (equivalent to a high school diploma) and language proficiency.

This simplified description of the role of the training programs led us to define nine different sorts of training programs, according to the number and quality of things they were achieving. The letter L stands for a "language program", E for a "basic education program", B for a "blue collar skill program", W for a "white collar skill program". A program of type L E W teaches at once language, basic education, and while collar skills.

The nine types of training programs are: (1) L, (2) L E, (3) L B B, (4) L E W, (5) E, (6) E B, (7) E W, (8) B, (9) W. This classification seemed to be a logical way of describing the activity of the main training programs that are operating in the San Francisco poverty areas.

This approach requires an input matrix that computes from existing data the number of people from each of the eight categories that go into each of the types of training programs. The way this input matrix is built, for the year zero, will be described later. The model includes a growth rate  $G(K)$  for the number of openings in each group of training programs  $K$ .

Now what the model does is calculate from this input matrix  $UJ(I,K)$  the number of people that come out of the training programs (after a period assumed to be 1 year for simplification). Those people can be of two origins: they can be people of this same category  $I$  who have failed in the training program that they took, and thus didn't change category. We will call these  $TU(I)$ . Or they can be people from another category who made it through their program and thus got to a "better" category. We will call these  $TUQ(I)$  ( $Q$  for qualified). For each category  $I$  we compute  $TU(I)$  and  $TUQ(I)$ . For instance in category 1, which is

supposedly the worst one,  $TUQ(1) = 0$ .  $A_K$  is the fraction of entrants who successfully complete Training Program K. The above equation reflects the fact that training program drop-outs returning to category 1 must have come from Training Programs 1,2,3, or 4. We therefore are able to describe the training programs applied to an age group of a certain poverty area of the city as moving the people from a "lower" category to a hopefully better one, assuming that there are more jobs for people who have language proficiency, basic education and some kind of skill than for people who have none of these.

### Jobs

The jobs considered in the model are jobs in San Francisco for people without college training. Such jobs generally fall into the category of entry-level jobs. Restricting jobs to those available in San Francisco ignores the fact that some poverty area residents of San Francisco are employed outside the city. On the other hand, some of the jobs considered are held by people residing outside of the city. The assumption used in the model is essentially that these two effects cancel out. Restricting jobs to those available to people with no more than a high school education ignores the fact that some residents of poverty areas do have college training and hold jobs requiring such training. Such people, however, do not have the unemployment problems associated with the majority of poverty area residents. On this basis, it is reasonable to exclude college trained people from the model. Thus, the area of concern of the model is actually the unemployment situation among people without college training in San Francisco poverty areas.

The likelihood of an unemployed person obtaining a job depends upon the number of job openings in his category, and the number of qualified applicants for these jobs. The



number of job openings in a given category depends upon the job turnover rate and the job growth rate. Job turnover occurs when people leave jobs either voluntarily or involuntarily. Job growth occurs when industries expand. It will be recalled that the designation "qualified" is an attempt to express a wide range of characteristics in terms of a single variable. In this model, it is assumed that only qualified people can obtain jobs.

The Jobs sub-model calculates, for each category and each year, the number of job openings, the probability of a qualified unemployed person obtaining a job, the number of jobs obtained by unemployed people in the poverty areas, and the number of poverty area people losing jobs.

#### Unemployed Pool

The number of unemployed people in a given category at the end of a year is obtained by starting with the number at the beginning of the year, subtracting those who age out of the category, adding the SU, EU, TU, TUQ, and JU flow rates, and subtracting the UT and UJ flow rates for the year. (See Fig. II-46). In the current version of the model it is assumed, on the basis of the age group covering 10 years (20-29), that 10% of the people in a given category will age out of the category during any year.

The fraction of qualified people in a given category at the end of a year is obtained by doing the same arithmetic for qualified people as is done for the total number of unemployed. The current version of the model bases this calculation on the assumptions that the fraction of qualified people coming from Schools and External remains constant, the fraction of qualified people among those aging out of the category is equal to the fraction of qualified unemployed for the entire category at the beginning of the year, and that all people successfully completing training programs or finding or losing jobs are qualified.

### Input Values for Model Runs

In order to run the model it was necessary to assume values for several of its parameters. Most of these assumed values can be found in Table II-29. The basis for these assumptions is discussed below.

#### Schools and External

The SU and EU flow rates were chosen fairly arbitrarily on the basis of the number of people initially unemployed (to be discussed below), estimates of the fraction of school drop-outs, and estimated of the large number of non-English-speaking Chinese immigrating into San Francisco every year.

#### Training Programs

The training program sub-model actually describes existing training programs in the San Francisco poverty areas. The nine types of training programs considered in the model are: (1) L, (2) L E, (3) L E B, (4) L E W, (5) E, (6) E B, (7) E W, (8) B, (9) W.

Each existing program would make a contribution to one or several of the types of training programs defined above. For instance, the Job Corps applies to people 16 to 21 years old and gives them basic education and technical or clerical skills. The Job Corps would then "contribute" a certain number of people in training programs (E B), and a certain of people in training programs (E W). The nature of this contribution is actually the number of people that this class of program takes. Here is the list of the programs that were taken into consideration in the model. The description is extracted from the CAMPS report. The number of opportunities are anticipated values for 1971.

Job Corps	E,B E,W	714	opportunities
Adult Basic Education	L,E	7,425	"
MDTA-OJT	B W	200	
MDTA-Institu- tional	L,E,B	410	"

	L,E,W		opportunities (cont.)
Work Incentive Program	L,E,B L,E,W	800	"
Bureau of Indian Affairs	B W	350	" (Bay Area)
NAB	W	1,500	" (10% under contract)
CEP Youth Training	W	90	"
CEP Mission Rebels	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1/4 \\ 3/4 \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} B \\ W \end{array}$	20	"
CEP Basic	E	450	"
CEP Adult Work Train. Prog.	B W	50	"
CEP New Careers	E,W	95	"
CEP Intensive Training	W	150	"
CEP Languages	L	600	"
EOC (social workers)	W	13	"

The above data was used to compute the inputs to the training program sub-model. What we need is the matrix  $UJ(I,K)$   $I=1$  to  $8$ ,  $K=1$  to  $9$ , which gives the number of people from each of the eight categories, that go into each of the nine types of training programs. The numbers shown above are not sufficient to compute this input matrix for two reasons: (a) The repartition of people between the two kinds of activities are not known for some programs, i.e., Job Corp, and (b) The origin of the people that get into training programs, i.e., which ones of the eight categories they come from, is not known. A valid input matrix for one category of age, 20-29, for the five EOC target areas of San Francisco, would necessitate further data on each of the training programs that were considered. In order to run the program in its present form, a likely input matrix was derived

Table II-29  
PARAMETER VALUES

Category

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8		
SU	30	70	80	--	--	--	--	--		
EU	80	20	10	20	20	10	15	5		
JOBS	1000	4950	1150	1150	4300	3700	975	1375		
TURNOVER	.41	.49	.54	.30	.25	.25	.44	.40		
GROWTH	.017	.015	.014	.004	.005	.005	.031	.029		
U	190	250	120	190	190	60	190	60		
UC	60	75	45	90	90	90	60	90		

UC: number of unemployed for entire city exclusive of poverty areas

U: number of unemployed for poverty areas



from the above numbers and other information contained in the CAMPS report. (Notice that the Adult Basic Education is a very large program with more than 7,000 opportunities, which will give a predominant influence in the model to programs of type (2). The training program matrix derived to this basis is shown in Fig. II-47.

		CATEGORY						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	4	0	0	5	0	0	0	0
2	70	0	0	70	0	0	0	0
3	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5	0	3	0	0	4	0	1	0
6	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0
7	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0
9	0	0	9	0	0	0	0	0

Figure II-47. TRAINING PROGRAM MATRIX

The training program matrix for subsequent years is obtained by assuming that the K'th training program has a linear growth rate  $G(K)$ . For all model runs it was assumed that the growth rates for all types of training programs were the same. The model was run for values of  $G$  ranging between 0 (no growth) and 0.5 (yearly increase of 50% of initial value).

The fraction of people successfully completing training programs,  $A(K)$ , was assumed to be the same for all programs. All model runs were done with  $A = 0.7$  on the basis of information obtained from the California Department of Human Resources Development.

### Jobs

The number of jobs for which people in the various categories might be eligible was estimated with the aid of a Department of Human Resources Development report entitled "Occupational Profile, City of San Francisco", (January 1970). This report claims to include over 70% of the jobs "typically available to persons with high school (or less) education". On the basis of information contained in the report it was possible to estimate for each occupation:

1. The number of jobs available to 20-29 year old males in each of the 8 unemployment categories.
2. The turnover rate.
3. The growth rate.

The total number of jobs for each category was then obtained by summing over all occupations, and the turnover and growth rates for each category were obtained as weighted averages over all occupations.

The number of jobs for each category could have been scaled up by some factor to account for the jobs not covered by the Occupational Profile. This was not done because it was felt to be the more conservative approach to underestimate the number of jobs (and, as shall be seen, the number

of unemployed) while considering all training programs, and because scaling up numbers of jobs would only be correct if the unaccounted for jobs had the same composition as those in the Occupational Profile.

It was assumed that half the jobs in each category are held by people in the poverty areas and the other half by people in the rest of the city. As mentioned earlier, this value was assumed to apply to all categories for all years.

#### Unemployment

The number of unemployed, summed over the 8 categories, for the poverty areas and the rest of the city was obtained by assuming a 12% unemployment rate in the poverty areas and a 6% rate in the rest of the city. In these calculations the unemployed were considered to be part of the work force. The number of jobs estimated from the Occupational Profile was 18,600. As previously stated, 9,300 of these jobs were assumed to be held by poverty area residents and 9,300 by residents of the rest of the city. Thus, the estimated number of unemployed 20-29 year old males in the poverty areas was 1,250, while the estimated number in the rest of the city was 600. The distributions of the unemployed among the 8 categories shown in Table II-29 represents the judgment of the authors based upon discussions and readings pertinent to the San Francisco unemployment situation.

The fraction of the poverty area unemployed assumed to be initially qualified for employment was 0.3 for all categories. A new value of this quantity is obtained by the model each year for each category. The fraction of qualified people in the rest of the city, which remains constant from year to year, was assumed to be 0.6 for all categories.

#### Results of Model Runs

It should be clear at this point that while considerable effort was expended to ensure that the input values used in the model runs were both reasonable and consistent, the values could not be deemed accurate or correct. Thus, the results

of the model runs can not be used to predict the actual number of unemployed in the 8 categories. The results of the model runs can, however, be used to analyze in a relative fashion the effects of existing training programs on the unemployment situation as well as the effects of increasing or modifying these training programs.

The model was programmed in Stanford Algol W. For the current version of the model a model run requires less than one second of execution time on an IBM 650. The computer output for the case of the currently existing training programs is shown in Table II-30. The 8 columns printed out for the various output variables correspond to the 8 categories of unemployed people described by Table II-28.

In addition to the case of existing training programs, the model was run for the case of no training programs and for training program growth rates of 20% and 50%. Comparisons between the total number of unemployed resulting from these runs is illustrated in Fig. II-48. (The 20% growth case is not illustrated since it would have to be squeezed in between the existing and 50% growth cases.) It is seen from Fig. II-48 that even with the existing training programs unemployment continues to increase (although at a slower rate than would prevail without the training programs), and that with a 50% growth rate it takes about 8 years for unemployment to level off (at which time training programs have 5 times as many openings as the existing programs). It should be borne in mind when considering the results presented in Fig. II-49 that the absolute numbers are of little significance but that the relative values are, hopefully, of some significance.

The effects of existing training programs on the composition of unemployment is illustrated in Fig. II-49 which shows the number of unemployed in categories 1 and 6 with and without existing training programs. Existing training programs greatly reduce category 1 unemployment by trans-



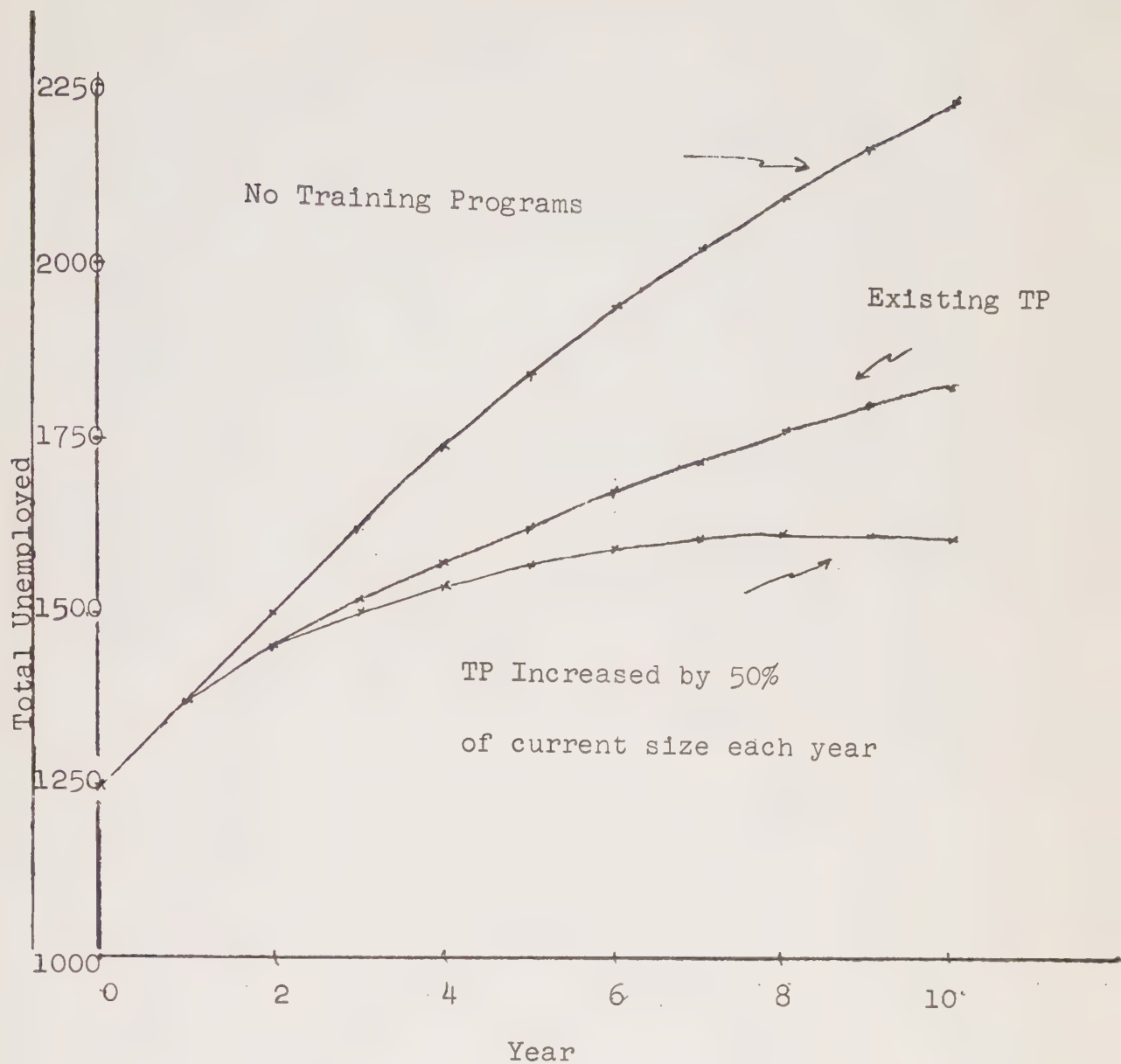


Figure II-48.. TOTAL UNEMPLOYMENT

Table II-30  
COMPUTER OUTPUT FOR EXISTING TRAINING PROGRAMS

YEAR	UNEMPLOYMENT FOR THE YEAR								SUM
0	190	250	120	190	190	60	190	60	1250
1	199	254	229	135	180	135	161	75	1368
2	211	274	302	93	174	170	146	81	1451
3	223	298	357	70	171	177	139	83	1518
4	232	323	401	64	168	170	134	84	1576
5	241	346	438	63	166	162	131	84	1631
6	248	366	470	62	164	158	129	84	1681
7	254	384	497	62	163	156	127	83	1726
8	260	400	522	62	163	156	125	83	1771
9	264	414	543	62	162	156	124	83	1808
10	268	428	562	62	161	157	122	83	1843

YEAR	FRACTIONS OF QUALIFIED PEOPLE %							
1	24	16	42	28	27	67	19	45
	22	11	41	32	25	72	13	50
	21	9	39	39	24	72	11	52
	21	8	36	44	24	70	10	53
	20	8	34	47	23	67	9	53
	20	7	33	48	23	65	9	54
	20	7	31	49	23	64	9	54
	20	7	30	49	23	63	9	54
	19	6	29	49	23	62	9	55
10	19	6	28	49	23	62	9	55

YEAR	PEOPLE FINDING JOBS							
1	48	74	34	44	53	17	50	17
2	41	42	82	30	45	80	29	31
3	41	30	103	24	41	105	19	37
4	42	26	113	22	39	109	14	39
5	42	26	118	23	37	102	12	41
6	43	26	122	24	36	95	12	41
7	43	26	124	25	36	90	11	41
8	44	26	125	25	36	87	11	42
9	44	26	126	25	35	86	11	42
10	45	26	126	25	35	85	11	42

YEAR	PEOPLE LOSING JOBS							
1	31	22	21	40	41	25	26	14
	28	5	45	35	37	55	16	21
	28	0	54	32	35	67	11	23
	28	0	59	31	34	68	9	25
	28	0	62	31	33	55	8	25
	29	0	64	32	33	62	8	25
	29	0	65	32	33	59	8	26
	29	0	65	32	32	58	8	26
	29	0	66	32	32	58	8	26
10	30	0	66	32	32	57	8	26

ferring people from category 1 into other categories. In fact, almost all of the reduction in unemployment effected by existing training programs can be accounted for by the reduction in category 1 unemployment. Existing training programs, as seen in Fig. II-49, actually increase category 6 unemployment. This occurs because people are being transferred into category 6 faster than the job market can absorb them. The leveling off of category 6 unemployment is due to the fact that after a few years Training Program 4 which transfers people from category 4 to category 6 and is the largest contributor to category 6 depletes the population of category 4 and is no longer able to fill its openings. Examination of the results for all 8 categories reveals that existing training programs result in lower unemployment for categories 1,2,4,5, and 7, and higher unemployment for categories 3,6, and 8.

The results shown in Table II-30 suggest that category

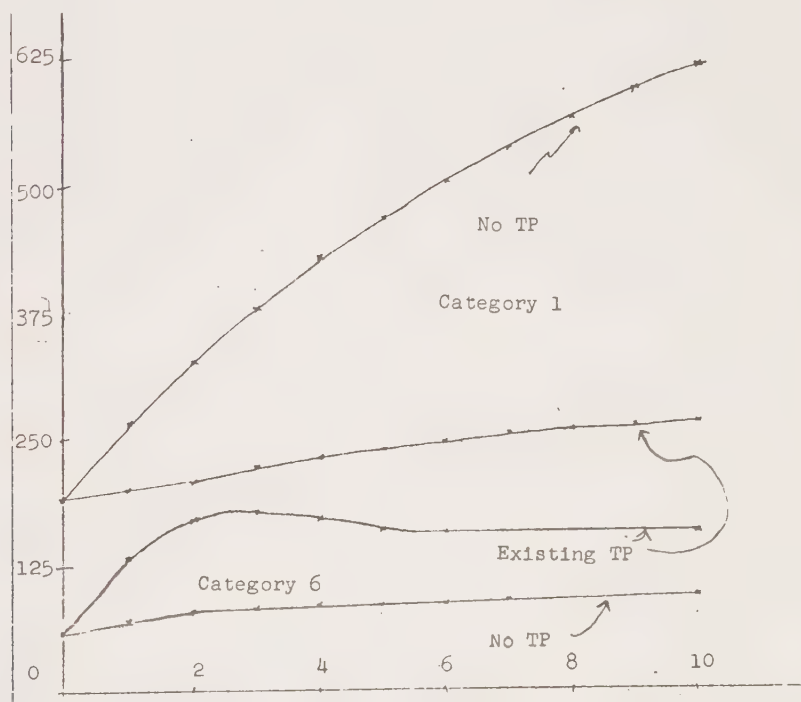


Figure II-49. UNEMPLOYMENT IN CATEGORIES 1 AND 6

1 people entering training programs would have a better chance of finding a job if they were transferred to category 2 instead of category 3 (as the bulk of them are). To investigate this possibility the total number of people accepted by Training Programs 1 and 2 was appropriately redistributed and the program run. Total unemployment resulting from this modification showed only a slight improvement over the existing training programs. In a second modification of existing training programs Program 1 was greatly increased while Program 2 was left unchanged. This resulted in a somewhat greater decrease in total unemployment than was obtained with the first modification.

The situation in which people have a better chance of finding a job in category 2 than in category 3 suggests a possible defect in the model in that people in one category are not allowed to compete for jobs in another category for which they may be qualified. The only difference between categories 2 and 3 is that people in category 3 have a high school diploma or equivalent. The validity of the assumption that category 3 people will not compete for category 2 jobs requires more detailed information than is incorporated into the current version of the model. If the typical situation turns out to be that of a file clerk taking a job as a dishwasher the assumption may turn out to be valid.

### Conclusions

Since the current version of the model is only a preliminary one, any conclusions drawn from it must also be preliminary. Improvements in the model will require considerably more information about people entering the unemployment pool from the schools and from outside of the city, more detailed information about existing training programs and the job market, and considerably greater knowledge about how unemployed people can be characterized



particularly with regard to what has been called qualification in the current version of the model.

Preliminary conclusions are that with existing training programs the unemployment situation is going to get worse, that it would take something like a five-fold increase in existing training programs just to achieve some sort of equilibrium, and that to actually decrease the number of unemployed people will probably require increases in the number of available jobs above those currently projected.



## Appendix II-F

### 1. Pre-Operation BREAKTHROUGH Prefabrication Methods

Introduction: This classification of production methods is not oriented to a period in time as much as it is oriented to a degree of sophistication in both the production and non-production aspects of the industrialized housing industry. A majority of these companies are located in the eastern and midwestern regions of the United States, and as is the case with the mobile home industry, are witnessing an active interest in their industry by major corporations.

Dwelling Types Produced: In response to past market demands, the bulk of the housing units produced have been sectional wood frame, single-family detached structures. Recently, there have been increasing numbers of townhouse units and low-rise (3 story maximum) multi-family structures produced. Sectional housing refers to box-like volumetric modules, differing from mobile home-type volumetric modules in that it is typically produced in two or more sections and requires the joining of common wall sections and the finishing of the interior and exterior joints at the site. It is sectionalized in order to meet highway size regulations.

Materials: Traditional housing materials are used. These are generally considered to be dry wall interiors on 2 inch by 4 inch stud walls with wood or masonry exteriors, or whatever is used in traditionally constructed housing in a given market area. Also, several companies allow for site applied brick on the front elevation of some models to provide visual variety. Although a majority of the units are of predominantly wood frame construction, several designs incorporate the use of rigid steel floor joist systems due to the rigors of transportation. Most producers stay away from mobile home look-alikes for marketing reasons.

Production: Production of pre-BREAKTHROUGH prefabricated housing varies little from present-day mobile home production methods, except that some of the materials used require different treatment. In some instances, these units are produced in the same factories and on the same production lines as mobile homes. But there is a great difference in the quality of the finished product.

These prefabricated units are generally better constructed than site-built housing. The average sectional unit contains more material and is structurally sounder than its traditional counterpart. Material wastes are somewhat reduced through controls possible in a factory. The net result of this type of factory production approach can be a moderately-high volume output of good quality, standardized dwelling units.

Based on the experience of the larger and more efficient of these factories, approximately 400 man-hours are required to build a typical 1,000 square foot single-family detached house. The bulk of these man-hours involve low skill tasks along the assembly line. Experience indicates that women excel in several of the detailed tasks involved in the finishing of the units. Women represent over 30 percent of the work force at several of the facilities.

The manufactured sectional or modular units are transported from the factory to the site by truck on mobile home type trailers or flat bed rigs.

Conclusion: As previously pointed out, these units are basically the forerunners of the more sophisticated industrially produced housing units now being produced for BREAKTHROUGH. For the most part, as the research and development into housing systems continues, this embryonic stage of the industrially produced housing industry should either come of age into the post-BREAKTHROUGH era, or cease to exist.



## 2. Industrially Produced Housing Production Methods

Introduction: The product being analyzed in this section is the type of industrialized housing that is being produced in Operation BREAKTHROUGH. It is the best that existing technology can presently develop. In many cases some of the elements of the unit are still in the research and development stage. They are being built, many for the first time, to undergo further testing. Yet, if current indicators are correct, and there is no reason to believe that they aren't, then it will be these very units and their forebearers that will be used to house America in the decades to come.

In the development of these building systems, certain criteria are being used. They are:

- The units must be capable of being mass-produced in a controlled environment using an open system.
- The system must make a breakthrough in total housing costs.
- The system must be able to be constructed with the minimum relocation of existing residents through rapid on-site construction and extreme design flexibility.
- The system must be able to be produced with the minimum of skilled labor.
- The system, if it is to be flexible enough, must be designed using fire-proof construction, so that it can be applied to many types of density situations.
- The system must provide flexibility in structure and household amenities.
- The system must be responsive to long term and changing community values.

- The units must be transportable.
- The system must provide a decent home and a suitable living environment.

Definitions: As is true with many new disciplines, and housing is no exception, the semantics of new terms are nebulous. For the purpose of this paper, I have developed some general definitions to clarify the use of the following terms. While most are based on accepted industry usage, some have been modified for the sake of clarity.

Housing Systems: As previously used, this term refers to a multi-discipline, systems approach to industrialized housing. It entails a total delivery concept from factory to land planning to marketing to residents associations. It is now being practiced by those in BREAKTHROUGH in joint-venture with the government. It is expected to be best applied through major corporations which enjoy management in depth and extensive financial resources.

Building Systems: The application of modern management techniques to coordinate design, manufacturing, site operations and overall financial and managerial administration into a disciplined method of building. These systems may be either "open" or "closed." Open systems are characterized by acceptance of a common set of standards, particularly in regard to coordination of dimensions and joints. Thus, interchangeability of components is the key feature of open systems. In closed component systems, the components of one system are unique to that system. Moreover, each system has its own method of joining components.

A number of factors appear to be required for the success of a building system. These include: 1) strong internal business organization, 2) large volume of effective

demand, 3) concentration of volume, 4) continuity of production and 5) strong, active governmental support at all levels of government.

In sum, building systems are a subsystem of housing systems which include the phases from production through erection.

Materials (Building) Systems: Materials systems refers to the applied use of a building material in the form of components.

Prefabrication: As used in this paper, prefabrication is meant to refer to all work done under factory conditions. Although prefabrication was first introduced into this country in 1624 when the English brought a panelized wooden house to Cape Ann, and although the word has been used frequently since then, there is little industry agreement as to its meaning. Much of this confusion exists because prefabrication is a generic term used to describe a manufacturing process through which a building, structure, house, shell, component or piece is produced. The process includes certain integral operations, such as precutting, preassembly, and prefinishing. All companies that participate in this process - regardless of their degree of involvement - can be called prefabricators.

Industrialization: As used in this report, industrialization refers to the substitution of mechanization and organization for manual labor. Since it implies that the work is done under factory conditions, all industrialized housing is prefabricated housing.

Industrially Produced Housing: As used in this report, it refers to housing that is produced by using industrialized building system methods.

Industrialized Building System Methods: Industrially produced housing is also referred to herein as industrialized housing. There are methods of building which include some or all of the following characteristics:

Large-scale use of mechanization

Large-scale use of factory produced standardized building components.

Large-scale projects constructed by repetitive processes.

Coordination of management leading to efficient planning, programming, and control of projects.

Continuous research and development in design, production, and erection systems.

At this stage in the revolution of housing policy and practice, large-scale application of industrialized building systems fundamentally is not limited by technological, design or cost factors, but only by institutional constraints.

Component: A component is any functional element of a housing unit. It may be a wall panel, a bathtub, a picket fence, or a volumetric module shell.

Panelized Components: Panelized components are the functional elements of a housing unit that are produced as panels before being built into the unit.

For example, industrially produced (prefabricated) panelized stud walls may be thought of as stud walls which are preassembled into large sections in an off-site factory before being transported to the site for erection.

Sandwich Panels: Sandwich panels are a type of panelized component, usually a wall, floor, ceiling, or roof panel, which may or may not be load-bearing. They have two sides and a unique filling material.

Volumetric Module: A volumetric module is a 3-dimension unitized housing unit. Translation: the entire housing unit is erected in the factory and arrives at the site



whole. A typical mobile home is a volumetric module.

Sectional Housing: In actual practice, because of highway restrictions, only very small units can leave an off-site factory in one piece as a volumetric module; most are shipped in sections.

Core Unit: A core unit is a factory finished room, or set of rooms, which are plugged-into the remainder of the building. A typical example is a bathroom core unit.

Panel/Core Concept: The panel/core building system concept for housing involves the joining of standardized factory components to a factory finished core.

### 3. Materials and Materials Systems

The need for new building systems offers exciting opportunities to materials scientists and engineers. Recent years have seen great strides in the development of new materials and materials systems. The aerospace industry, barely out of its infancy, is a persuasive example. Combining advanced materials systems analysis with skill and ingenuity, the properties of existing materials have been greatly improved and new materials have been created to satisfy diverse and complex product needs. Materials knowledge and experience now exist, which, if properly utilized, can provide a major breakthrough in the housing industry. The traditional approach of molding needs to fit the limited capabilities of common materials is rapidly becoming obsolete. The materials systems approach provides a structure for selecting or creatively engineering materials to satisfy diverse and often contradictory requirements. Of course, further research is also needed to materially aid the urgent needs of the housing industry.

Requirements: There are four basic requirements for a materials system used in housing. They are:

1. Manufacturing requirements: Major emphasis must be directed toward reducing direct labor charges. Materials must be easily handled, formed and fabricated. The total cost per unit must be low.
2. Installation requirements: The materials system must permit an ease of installation by low-skill labor with a minimum of equipment. Amount of waste, worker preference, weight requirements and geographic location of factory and dwelling unit are also important factors.

Most specialists in the industrialized housing field stress that the secret to success appears to be efficient fabrication of components. It is, then, very important to thoroughly investigate all materials available before deciding to

purchase, subcontract or manufacture them.

3. Service requirements for the system: These include such requirements as structural rigidity, fire resistance, acoustical insulation, weather resistance, vibratory damping, ease of maintenance, long life span, durability, etc. This list of requirements will necessarily be a long one because to be acceptable the product must be sufficiently adaptable to meet a variety of functional demands, some much less obvious than others.
4. Consumer requirements: Above all, the product must be acceptable to the consumer.

The Materials Industry: Building materials traditionally account for the largest part of new housing construction costs. The wealth of new building materials and materials systems should reduce total cost, but it will also mean a reorganization of several aspects of the materials industry in order to pass these savings on to the consumer.

Building codes which are not enforced on a performance standard basis will hinder the use of the new building materials.

Some basic building materials are produced by industries with high degrees of concentration. This may delay the rate of introduction of new building materials; though it must be said that information regarding this type of practice is very scarce in the industry, and thus, the role of oligopoly in the building materials industry is inconclusive.

The role of the supplier of materials needs reevaluation. There have been substantial charges that dealership systems may create unnecessary mark-ups in building materials prices.

Trends: Up until the advent of industrialized housing, lumber and lumber products have been the predominant housing materials. Aside from their relatively low cost, their great asset has been the ease with which they can be cut

and fastened in the field with hand tools. Metals and plastics, on the other hand, usually must be worked with heavy equipment that can't be brought directly into the field and that requires volume production to justify its expense. Also, since traditional housing's labor force is geared to either woodframe or steel frame or concrete construction, many materials that could improve housing have never had a chance to be used. The same traditional building materials are also made in small components (bricks, studs, nails, etc.). This has allowed for much flexibility since these small products can be sold for a great variety of building projects.

But industrialized housing is changing this. It is produced in a factory where machinery is used, it thrives on volume production so it can justify the equipment expense and its new labor force can certainly be taught to work with different materials. It also enjoys the advantages of volume purchasing power so it can effectively lower the cost of certain materials previously too expensive for housing use. Also, since the industrialized housing systems industry is not fractionalized, as the traditional housing industry is, trade-off of costs between initial first-cost and maintenance costs over time can be economically justified. And then the past experience with 3 and 4 inch modules has opened up a new world of 8 and 12 ft. modules with many compensating features. What follows is a summary of building materials and their expected uses during the next two decades.

Lumber: Lumber and lumber product use is expected to decrease with time. This trend is already noticeable where steel studs are replacing wood studs. The major reason for this transition is economic. While lumber and its products have traditionally proven less expensive than their competitors, lumber may soon become scarce and higher costs will



then ensue. Thus, in order to make a smooth transition from lumber, many firms are starting to substitute other materials now. Many of these substituted materials have properties which make them superior to the lumber product they replaced. Thus, as more of these advantages are discovered, and more of the product is used, the products' effective cost should decrease due to the economics of supply and demand. Thus, this transition from timber may prove to be self-fulfilling. But, in many sections of the country, it is a fact today that when considering only first-costs, a wooden frame dwelling is still the least expensive structure to use for one and two story dwellings.

Gypsum: At this time, and in the near future, gypsum board partitions (sheet rock) are one of the least expensive panel materials to use, considering total cost (initial cost plus cost over time). Besides, it is fire resistant. But, while traditionally a pound of gypsum has initially cost just a fraction of the cost of a pound of plastic, the industrialized building systems have had the effect of increasing the square foot cost. This is because special precautions are necessary to prevent cracking during transportation. Such techniques as the use of vinyl coated sheet rock, plywood backing panels and expanded joints are presently being utilized.

Where plastics and other competitive materials become economically competitive is when techniques are used that get enough use of an equal weight of the material at substantially lower labor costs and at lower costs over time. Then, the total cost of a square ft. of finished panel becomes comparable. Some systems have been able to do this, most haven't. Thus, many material systems end up being composites of gypsum board and plastic (or whatever).

Plaster: As a building material, the use of plaster,

except as an exterior "stucco" finish, has been non-existent for the past several years. Sheet rock had, for the most part, replaced it. But some building systems are now researching factory produced cast plaster wall and ceiling finishes. A plaster slurry is poured into room size molds that are about one-half inch deep. A light steel framework with metal lath attached is then layed on top of the wet plaster so that the metal lath becomes imbeded in the plaster. After the plaster sets, the wall or ceiling is removed from the mold and is used as a building panel.

Steel: While steel is a conventional material in traditional multi-story buildings, the industrialized building approach to single-family housing (3 stories or less) has begun to set a trend with the use of steel in various parts of the home. Pert Mack companies in Denver have gone heavily into the use of steel. William Lyon Development Company, Boise Cascade Corporation and others have begun the gradual transition of using steel stud framing in California. Others are expected to soon follow.

Steel Systems: In Denver, the system includes a steel floor system, precast or steal-framed exterior walls, interior partitions made with steel studs and drywall, manufactured roof trusses and factory built door and window units. This system results in reduced construction time, lower overall materials cost and more efficient use of labor and management skills. The result: eight traditional looking two, three, and four bedroom models priced below the traditionally-build models of the competition at \$14,950 to \$18,250.

U.S. Steel has been working since 1964 on the design of steel floor joists for residential construction. The new system proves to be more economical, stronger, and installs faster than traditional floors. Nail popping and floor squeaks are eliminated. The system will soon be marketed to

major builders across the country. It can be used in both first and second level floors. It supports a poured concrete floor, is easily installed using joist hangers attached to the craw space foundation wall. Steel I-beams under all floors carry the center load and prevent sagging and sloping during the home's lifetime.

An on-site fabricating process was perfected to construct the exterior walls which employs galvanized steel sections for structural support. The wall is framed, insulation is placed and siding is applied at ground level before the completed wall is hoisted into position. An alternative brick design exterior is available. It is molded in a plant and lifted into place by a crane.

Exterior doors are steel and won't warp, shrink, or sag. Also, steel bifold closet doors and gutters and down spouts are used.

Steel Studs: The replacement of wood studs by steel studs reduces by 50% the amount of lumber normally used in building a single-family dwelling. Lyons is replacing the wood with 20 gauge galvanized cold-rolled steel prefabricated wall sections.

While steel stud walls are commonly used in high-rise buildings, the technique has not generally been used in single-family housing. (Phillip Colbourne, Vice-President of Lyon's purchasing division says that Australian builders actually began the use of steel studs in single-family housing about two and one-half years ago.)

The California firm is planning to make a transition from wood to all-steel component housing as quickly as it can in its statewide building program. They site the benefits of: 1) reduced hazard of fire, particularly electrical wall fires, which in turn should reduce fire insurance costs; 2) the house will be termite proof and dry rot is totally eliminated.

"While the use of the prefabricated steel stud sections saves an average of three days production time (over traditionally constructed wood stud walls), they do not cut to-days lumber costs nor effect a cost saving. They will however, represent a considerable savings next Spring (1971) when stepped up building nationally sends lumber prices spiralling upwards. We are able to get firm price protection on steel for 12 months, according to Dick Randall, Northern California area manager for William Lyon Homes.

Together with the wall sections, Lyon's is also expected to introduce a new American Standard prefabricated steel-frame plumbing module this year (1970). (William Lyon Development Company is a subsidiary of American Standard.)

Other Steel Uses: Another single-family housing innovation for steel is the steel space frame which is further discussed in the Vari-flex Component Building System section of this report.

Many new and innovative uses for steel are being developed by multi-story building system designers. Many of these are briefly explained with alternate references listed in A Compendium of Building Structures and Components by the National Association of Home Builders.

Concrete: Concrete is another traditional building material that is finding renewed uses in building systems. Concrete, itself, is one of the least expensive thermal plastic materials available. Many experiments have been conducted both here and abroad using thin shells of light weight concrete with steel wire, burlap or fiber mash reinforcement. Some have tried to make use of forms made of inflated plastic bags on which mesh is placed and rapid-setting concrete is pumped-sprayed. A monolithic carcass is formed to act as the outer shell of the unit, which is then finished inside. Other researchers are experimenting with new types of aggregates, such as glass.



Uniment: Some researchers are using chemically reinforced concrete. One such project, completed in 1968, is Uniment. There were two basic purposes of the project: 1) to find whether the precast concrete module method can be used to construct a high-rise residential structure designed for occupancy by lower income families and 2) to test the utility of the CHEMSTRESS process, in which concrete expands chemically and bonds itself to reinforcing steel members. It proved to be deficient on both counts. The concrete was found to be of overly fragile quality which never does quite stop expanding. Also, it appears that potential cost-saving benefits from the CHEMSTRESS method are not being realized.

Volumetric Modular: The concept of precast concrete volumetric modules has been well tested in the residential construction of Europe, Russia, and Israel. Recently, several buildings have been built in North America using this method, including Habitat and the H.B. Zachry Company's motel, hotel, and garden apartment complex. Zachry has achieved very rapid construction times and generally reduced costs from the very high project costs of Habitat.

The basic steps of a precast method begin with the casting of the volumetric modules in a yard or plant, followed by a varied degree of finishing, ranging from the installation of basic fittings to complete furnishings. Modules are then transported to the site, erected by a crane in various stacking arrangements, and joined. Finally, finishing is completed and utilities are connected.

The broad conclusions, obtained from a review of projects may be summarized as follows:

Module weights have been reduced from 80 tons to 11-15 tons.

This type of construction seems to meet the stringent building code requirements of urban core areas.

A fire-resistant structure with reduced insurance rates.

Cool interior, insulated from hot summer sun and weather.

Strong, durable construction able to withstand abuse and vandalism.

Low exterior maintenance guaranteed by life-long concrete exterior.

The method permits a variety of module configurations, stacking techniques and weight-bearing arrangements.

While few cost figures are yet available for large scale production, the greatest cost savings from this method may be derived from the indirect benefits of faster construction.

Production crews can contain a high proportion of relatively unskilled workers.

Having to finish the inside of concrete modules is repetitious, redundant, and unnecessarily adds to cost.

The building system itself is very restrictive and governs the environment of the project and the livability of an individual dwelling unit by inhibiting variation and flexibility in configuration once erected.

Panel Systems: There are dozens of concrete panel building systems. The basic reason that there are so many more panel systems than there are volumetric module systems is that panels allow so much more variety and flexibility than does a 3-dimensional precast box. Unlike volumetric modules that are just the result of erecting and connecting prefabricated panels in a factory before transportation to the site, precast boxes do not allow for future modification in shape or configuration. Also, it is clear that transporting super boxes for long distances is not efficient. And then, erecting panels is not that much slower than piling up completed boxes.

Conventional tilt-up panel type construction is finding popularity with the single-family type of dwelling. The Portland Cement Association publishes reports on several.

It lists in its report, Concrete Housing Systems No. 9, the advantages and benefits of cast-on-site one-family concrete housing. They are:

1. Storage of building supplies at the site kept to a minimum.  
all concrete supplied by ready mix producer  
minimum forming requirements  
all-concrete design eliminates need for multiple building supplies
2. Wall sections are cast as panels on the site in single operations.  
the concrete molds can be designed to resemble brick  
finished walls are tilted into position by crane in one day
3. Roof cast by boom-controlled pump in a single operation
4. Small crew adequate work force.  
no need for additional trades, i.e., dry wall men, plasterers, framers, or stucco men  
close control and supervision achieved

The wall sections are typically 4 ft. long panels locked in place by keyed joints, perimeter apron-footing, and cast roof. The interior is finished with fabric-covering or paint. Construction costs run about \$8.50 per square ft. for an 800 square foot, 5 room and a bath house.

Alternative joining methods, which allow for future modifications in the shape of the unit without major effort, are presently being designed.

Lightweight aggregate panels are being tested by the National Association of Home Builders Research Foundation. The use of cellular concrete for panels offers the fire resistance, low maintenance, and structural integrity of the conventional material system, but usually requires highly skilled labor at the job site.

Concrete Components: For multi-story construction, concrete component approaches are used with off-site casting and prefabrication. As an example, TECHCRETE, designed by architect Carl Koch and sponsored by Kaiser Industries, is a system using precast concrete components for walls, floors, and beams. Multi-story projects have been built in Boston for \$10.70 and \$12.00 per square ft., and it is claimed that an 18 story project can be built for \$6.23 per square ft. Unskilled labor is used to a large extent in the manufacture and erection of the components. The system makes use of post-tensioning, grout filling, and compriband.

Nails: The use of nails is decreasing in favor of adhesive and self-taping screws. And as the use of lumber decreases, the use of nails should decrease even more.

Adhesives, such as "neoprone", offer such advantages as cost savings, acceptance by the Federal Housing Authority, and the major national codes, ease and speed of installation and in some cases, less material is required due to the strength characteristics of the adhesive.

The American Plywood Association (APA) has published several manuals of specifications for glued plywood floors. They report the following advantages:

- fewer nails are required, reducing nailing costs.
- longer spans often permit reduction in joist size
- one layer of underlayment can be eliminated entirely, for substantial savings in both material and labor.
- virtually eliminates costly call backs to repair squeaks, nail pops, or joint problems that may occur where unseasoned joists shrink
- an all-weather connection

The APA also reports that savings as high as 20 cents per square ft. are possible on stressed skin panels.

The adhesives are also available for gluing on to



concrete, brick, or masonry, aluminum, steel, fiber glass, glass, and many plastics. The adhesives have excellent bonding power. (Neoprene: 500 pounds per square inch). Some are like glues and bond without heat and pressure, others require the heat and pressure. The time required for set varies with the type of adhesive.

Honeycomb Sandwich Design: Honeycomb as a sandwich core material has been used since World War II by the aerospace industry. Recently, however, its possible uses as a housing material have been realized. Prototype components of this type are now being researched and developed by the housing industry. The primary reasons for expecting honeycombs wide usage are:

a properly oriented cellular structure, such as honeycomb, yields the highest strength to weight ratio, i.e., more strength for less weight, for the materials involved in its construction.

nearly any commonly used structural material may be fabricated in a honeycomb configuration. This allows environmental conditions of virtually unlimited nature to be met by proper selection of materials. Honeycomb cores are produced today in a variety of materials including paper, glass-reinforced plastic, asbestos-reinforced plastic, aluminum of various alloys, stainless steel and many "super alloy" materials.

Honeycomb is produced to within narrow tolerance limits in regard to its size, thickness, density, and quality.

Honeycomb of most types is manufactured at high production rates and is readily available.

machining and contouring techniques have been developed which allow honeycomb to be used in most cases without regard to the complexity of the part.

impact resistance

high rigidity per unit weight

good insulation properties

good fire resistance

For example, in comparing the advantages of a Honeycomb core sandwich floor over a more conventional wood joist or cast concrete flooring type constructure for a multi-rise apartment house, the advantages include:

- lower building weight, which would reduce the superstructure loads and hence increase the safety factor.

- utility, which would lend itself to ease of floor removal for replacement of electrical and ducting systems.

- ability to be prefabricated off the job site

- probably volume savings since the floor could be designed with a thinner section.

- longer floor life with associated low maintenance.

The basic disadvantage of honeycomb core sandwich construction is the presently high initial cost. It is presently being used in large computer room floors and indoors by the industrialized housing industry. It is generally felt that the use of honeycomb core sandwich construction will increase many-fold in the next decade.

## Plastics in Building

Introduction We have allowed an entire section to the use of plastics in building since it seems to us that the new building materials and methods of the plastics industry seem to bear the most promise for housing in the future. The trend of increased use of plastics in building will be accelerated when stepped-up research and communications are achieved. The intensified growth in plastics hinges on lower cost plastic materials, savings in fabrication and installation costs and market acceptance of plastics for their functional or esthetic appeal. Further development of plastics in building during the next decade should result in the improved materials and lower production cost necessary. In the distant future, say by the year 2000, plastics should be commonly used with ceramic materials, metals, and reinforcement in fire retardant and load-bearing applications.

The architecture of plastics has the distinct advantage that it can be shaped either by mass production, or, as an alternative, by on-site molding imposing few restrictions on building design. The existing plastics industry has the advantage of backing by industrial giants capable of funding the research and market development necessary. A topic of much analysis presently, and a key to the cost cuts necessary, is where are the crude materials, such as petroleum, going to come from if, in fact, the demand for plastics does skyrocket. It is being said more and more that this the optimal use for the existing supply and manufacturing capabilities of the petroleum industry if and when the internal combustion engine is replaced by a non-gasoline type power source. Another happy circumstance here is the research being at present carried out for space travel.

The traditional uses of plastics in building include pipes, revetments, electrical fittings and insulation.

The following are considered to be the most promising

plastics and plastic (building) systems of this decade.

Polyvinylchloride (PVC): PVC pipe has been available on the American market for about 17 years.. The B.F. Goodrich Chemical Company was the innovator in its marketing (Geon Vinyl). PVC pipe usage was prevented until recently by codes. Now PVC (vinyl) is fast growing in acceptance for drain waste/vent systems in new and rehabilitation construction.

Drainage lines account for about 75% of piping costs inside an average single-family dwelling unit. PVC (vinly) offers appreciable savings when used for this purpose. Installation is easy and fast. Joints are solvent welded, no threading. Stronger too. PVC pipe weighs only a fraction as much as traditional materials, hence is easier to handle. PVC pipe is self-extinguishing and thus prevents flame from spreading along pipes between walls. It also resists abuse and does not allow scale to build up inside pipe or fittings.

The price course of PVC (vinyl) has dropped from approximately \$1.00 per pound in 1942 to about 20 cents per pound in 1970. World production in 1960 was about  $400 \times 10^3$  tons, in 1967 it was over  $1600 \times 10^3$  tons. In conclusion, this could be the greatest single improvement in indoor plumbing.

Fiber Glass Reinforced Plastic (FRP): The entire FRP family has much to contribute to low-cost maintenance-"free" housing. Plastic doors both interior and exterior are in production, along with FRP replacements for about every conceivable type of exterior millwork, entryways, trim materials, window frames, archways, door jambs, and colonial door frames.

FRP brick and stone exterior and interior applications are developed to look like the real thing; the same is true for 4 x 8 ft. FRP roof panels with simulated wood shake shingles-they go up fast and eliminate most re-roofing problems. Also being developed is simulated lap siding in large



sections simplifying installation and eliminating maintenance and painting chores.

The big news in unitized, prefabricated bathrooms is also FRP. A galvanized steel frame is used to support strong, easily molded, lightweight FRP which resists rusting and chipping and eliminates troublesome joints and seams.

A wide range of strength, stiffness, fatigue and impact properties are available from the FRP family. Polyester resins constitute the bulk of FRP applications due to low cost, handling ease, and generally good properties. Epoxy plastics have outstanding strength and adhesive properties but are more expensive. Phenolic plastics have lower strength, but are inexpensive and have many applications, including the future use of phenol-formaldehyde foams for housing panels. In addition, many fiber reinforced thermoplastics are experiencing growth, including nylon, PVC, acrylics and polystyrene.

Vinyls: The entire family of plastic vinyls are experiencing increased demands for such uses as vinyl-covered wood, gypsum board and concrete. All the realism of the material appears, but acts as a long-lasting, no-maintenance material.

Silicones: Silicones have long been noted for their ability to provide an extremely long-life seal under even the most adverse conditions. The major limitation to silicone sealants has been that they could not be painted over. A recently announced silicone caulk has all the desirable qualities of earlier types, yet can be painted over with any good quality paint.

The role of silicone coatings in the building industry is only now beginning to be realized. Silicone coating rolled on over exterior-grade plywood can provide a low maintenance roof with a life expectancy of at least 30 years. From their small but very noteworthy start as a caulking

material, silicones are on the threshold of a major building product breakthrough.

All Fiber-Resin Building System: Material Systems Corporation of Washington, D.C. has developed a composite material building system. They have built prototype single family detached houses in Southern California and have been awarded an operation BREAKTHROUGH contract. The prototypes are being built in Valley Center, which is in San Diego County on the Rincon/La Jolla and Palma Indian reservations.

The composite material is made up of resin and also fiber. The fiber material can be bamboo, cactus, hemp, or conventionally used glass. The compressive strength of glass approaches approximately 16,000 psi, which is almost that of mild steel. Cactus and bamboo are not far behind, being approximately three-quarters the compressive strength of steel.

The industrialized building system concept of construction is utilized whereby the panels, which are structural, are produced in a factory, transported to the site by truck, and erected almost entirely by untrained labor using the tilt-up panel system.

Almost any desired finish can be molded into the material. The prototypes have an exterior wall finish of imitation adobe; an interior wall finish of simulated plaster and dry-wall which needs no other finish other than paint, if desired; the composite roof panels are faced with a mission tile appearing surface and an exposed wood interior finish; and the buttresses are of stucco simulation. Even the "wood" trim is actually the composite material. As you can see, this system is architecturally unlimited in scope.

The prototypes have slab on grade foundations. The panels are tilted up and are notched to receive a rigid beam (composite material) support. Conventional doors and windows are used. The insulating properties of the materials are

good, only the roof panels are further insulated with mineral wool.

The prototype unit has 1750 square ft. in it including garage. The garage comes completely finished on the inside, so that it could be readily converted into a room. The actual living area of the house is 1250 square ft. The selling price to the Indians is \$10,000 complete, including a reasonable utility hook-up allowance on the Indian's lot. The system has received FHA approval. The anticipated mass-produced construction cost is \$8.50 per square ft. on-site, delivered and set-up.

Filament Winding As a Building System: The possibilities inherent in this technology are fascinating. A volumetric module is formed by winding an interior surface and reinforcing bands over a form (mandrel); overlaying this with insulation; integrating the environment control systems within the insulation thickness; and overwinding an outer exterior surface finish. The system has stimulated broad interest due to its adaptability to automation, its weight/efficiency ratio, economy in tooling costs, shorter calendar-time from concept to use, and low manufacturing cost for each item.

A one-room house has been filament-wound by the University of Michigan School of Architecture. The structure, 16 x 12 x 8 ft. high assembled, was wound in 24 man-hours at a cost of \$570 for materials. Traditional wood structure would be \$600 in materials and 80 man-hours!

Many aerospace companies have wound large boxes of cylindrical structure with bare walls for uses as storage tanks and rocket motors.

TRW Systems Group of Redondo Beach, California has developed a system in which the mandrel-wrapped fiber shell modules will be used to build housing units from single-family detached units to high-rise units. The

system uses fibrous glass, reinforced plastic, cellulose honeycomb and gypsum board that can be combined to make modules and panels in off-and on-site factories.

In January 1969, raw material costs averaged about \$.31 per pound for glass roving and \$.25 for polyester resin, resulting in a per-pound cost of \$.29 for the composite. The lowest selling-price for small filament-wound commercial products was approximately \$.90 per pound. The University of Michigan one-room selling price, at their reported material and labor costs, would be \$.50 per cubic ft. using representative overhead and profit, which equates to \$9.60 per square ft.

Providing amenities is the key to the cost of the system. During the winding process, items such as electrical cable, plumbing, and heating ducts can be put in place along the path of the fibers or along a separate path, and on the inner or outer surface of the structure or buried between windings. Thermal insulation can also be placed by machine in strips or bulk. Items such as attachment fittings can be wound in, with portions extending if desired. Window frames, door openings, ledges, etc. can be inset or molded to desired shape, using a separate tool to form the filament windings directly.

Complete units such as the molded plastic bathroom could be placed on site in the correct position; other modules wound in-plant, forming other rooms, could also be assembled in the manner of building blocks on site. The entire assembly could then be overwound to form a complete dwelling. One disadvantage of this system, as with the precast concrete volumetric module, is the lack of flexibility in shape after initial molding.

In summary, the reasons for further and continuing research and development of the filament winding process for housing include:



Although low in specific modulus, the fiber glass-resin filament-wound combination appears in raw and fabricated form to compete as a structural material with lumber and steel on a price basis.

The filament-winding process is currently capable of using a machine to fabricate volumetric modular structures with very low cost in man-hours as compared with traditional building methods.

Very large structures can be built either off-or on-site, using inflatable structures, with relatively low-cost machinery.

Filament-wound shapes can be very pleasing, economical in surface area and of great variety in design.

The materials used are resistant to weather, corrosion, can be pigmented, easily repaired, electrically and thermally insulated, can be sawn, ground, drilled, tapped, cemented and will not support combustion.

Other Plastics and Methods: Polystyrene production, and hence use, is expected to continue increasing. Plastic foams are a favorable prospect in the building field. Slabs of thermo-hardened foams covered with weather-resistant polyvinylfluoride foils are expected to be used more and more as light filling elements in skeleton building. Then, too, the injection of hollow walls with closed cell foams, which have been made water-resistant by adding silicones, will be a solution of the problem of rain penetration which is sometimes caused at present with the use of existing foams.

In the field of the use of thermo-plastic plastics-adhesives, high-frequency welding and thermic welding-the use of ultrasonic waves for welding is being heard of more and more. For constructive uses of plastics in the building field depends, the recent "wisker" technology justifies full attention.

Polyurethane Foam: Polyurethane foam has been used successfully as insulation. Its light weight and structural stability make it a good candidate for housing construction. A detailed study of this material follows in the section on the Vari-Flex Component Building System.

Plastics Summary: Stopping for a moment to look at the present position of plastics as a whole, it can be reasonably assumed that the industry is at the beginning of a phase of explosive growth. Experts have recently calculated that the production of plastics will have exceeded world production of metals by around 1983-85. Thus, around 1983-85 the iron era will be replaced by the era of synthetic polymers. Our civilization will thus enter a new stage. Therefore it is clear that for plastics in the building industry, there must be almost unlimited possibilities hidden away in the future.

Conclusion to Materials and Materials Systems: While there are other materials used in housing construction (aluminum etc.) and other new building materials and material systems being developed, the preceding pages are a good overview of the changing nature of the housing industry.

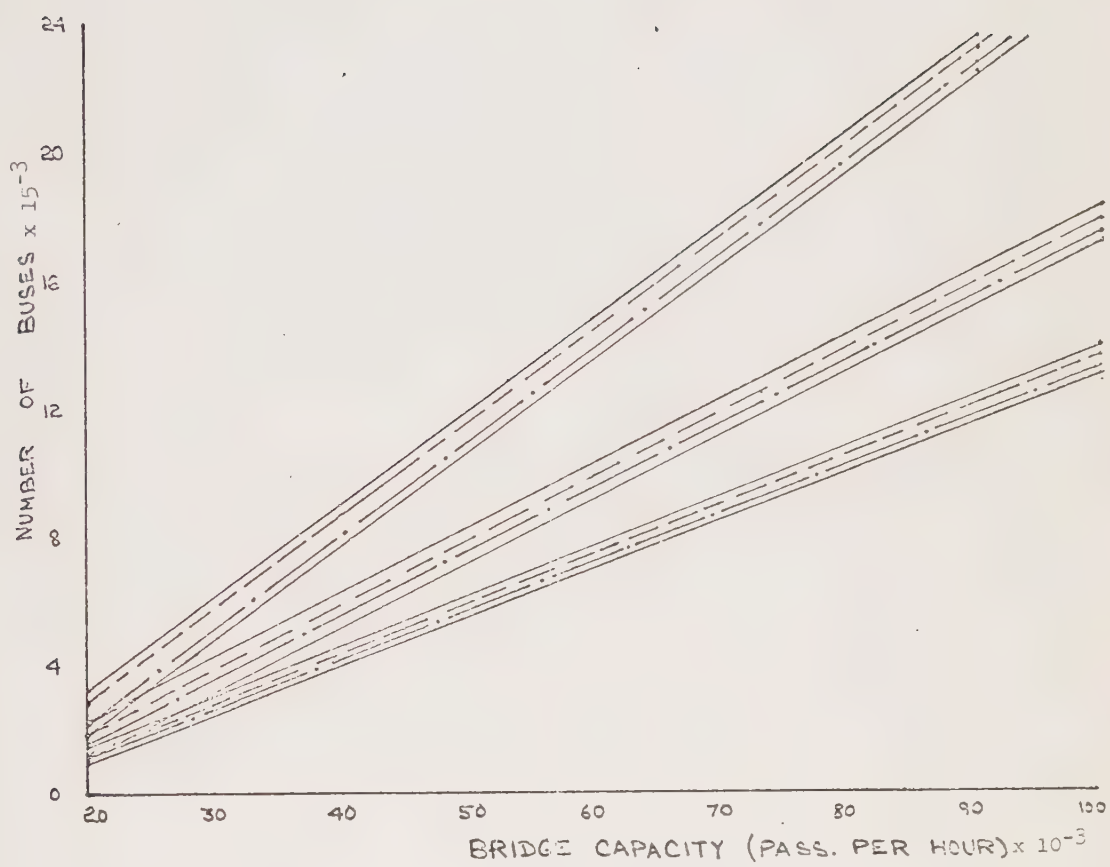


Figure II-50. BUS REQUIREMENTS vs. CAPACITY  
GOLDEN GATE BRIDGE

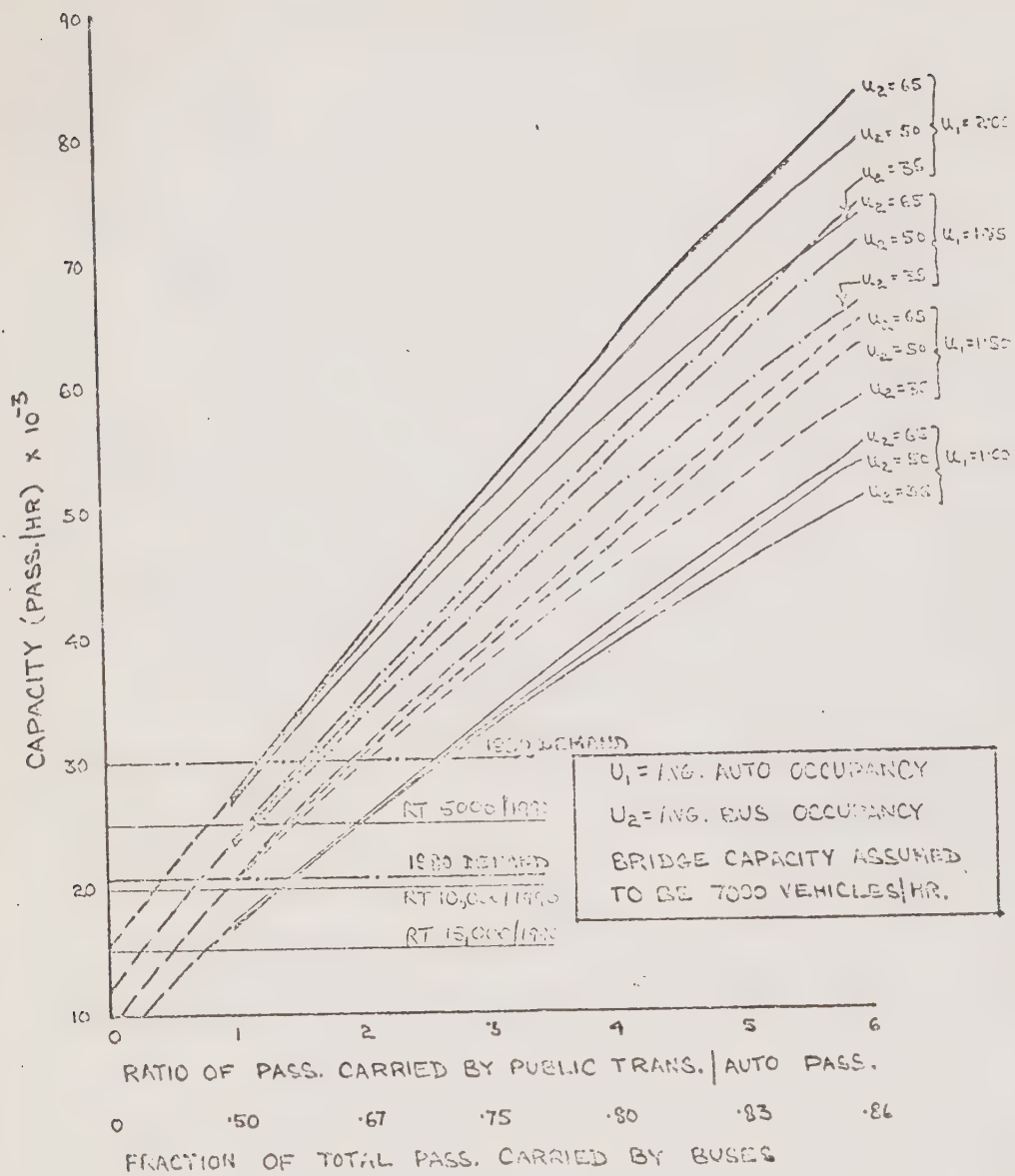


Figure II-51. CAPACITY CURVES  
 GOLDEN GATE BRIDGE



Table II-31.

## SAN FRANCISCO MUNICIPAL RAILWAY SCHEDULE

SAN FRANCISCO MUNICIPAL RAILWAY

SCHEDULE and TRAFFIC DEPARTMENT

WEEKDAY SCHEDULES -- SCHOOL DAYS

REGISTRATION and ANALYSIS of SCHEDULES

In EFFECT: DECEMBER 22, 1969

COACHES																		(a) SPECIAL CHARTER									
LINE	NUMBER	DATE	RUNS	TRIPS	EQUIPMENT				HEADWAYS				VEHICLE	MAXIMUM	OVER	SCHED.	ROUND TRIP		SCHOOL CHARTER								
		IN EFFECT			AM	BASE	PM	NITE	AM	BASE	PM	NITE	HOURS	HOURS	TIME	MILEAGE	SPEED	TIME	MILES	HOURS	TRIPS	MILES	LINE				
2	5571R	4-14-69	32	214	36	16	28	9	2	6	2	15	281:10	279:36	23:36	2984.24	10.61	1:08	12.76	13:16	13	183.70	2				
5	5444R	9-5-67	8	21	6	-	8	-	12	-	9	-	26:21	72:16	8:16	280.52	10.65	1:17	14.34	13:09	11	125.26	5				
10	5763R	10-24-69	24	106	15	10	14	7	7	11	8	15	186:56	209:16	17:16	1853.64	9.92	1:32	18.06				10				
11-14-40 (14)	5395B5	1-6-69	46	302	40	19	35	2	7	16	7	15	329:31	410:46	42:46	3405.46	10.33	1:03	10.54	10:10	10	139.86	11-14-40				
(40)									3	8	3	-						1:14	15.62				(14)				
15-42(K)	5324R4	10-14-68	22	130	20	8	16	4	2	-	2	-						:16	2.39				(40)				
15-42(O)	5403R4	6-17-68	37	186	26	19	30	6	3	10	3	15	165:09	204:58	28:58	1860.44	11.27	1:03	14.32	6:27	6	68.73	15-42(K)				
16	4982R2	2-28-69	11	42	11	-	11	-	5	-	4	15	291:49	325:08	29:08	3393.18	11.64	1:37	20.80	7:44	7	94.51	15-42(O)				
17	4896B3	11-21-66	8	102	13	3	10	1	30	30	30	30	77:51	74:39	10:39	1171.44	15.05	:57	14.25	23:29	18	233.27	16				
(17X)									7	30	5	30						:24	5.52	3:17	3	35.61	17				
18-M (M)	5327R	11-21-66	10	90	6	5	5	4	9	16	14	20	90:05	88:54	8:54	1139.64	12.65	:47	19.16				(17X)				
19	5786	11-24-69	24	156	16	11	19	5	4	6	4	15	191:30	217:28	25:28	1406.68	7.35	:54	13.72	1:17	1	10.80	18-M				
23-27 (27)	5326	9-6-66	11	95	6	5	7	2	24	24	22	-	84:05	101:28	13:28	780.30	9.28	:23	6.42	6:44	4	60.68	19				
24	5323	9-6-66	14	112	8	6	7	3	14	20	12	20						:18	3.34	1:32	1	10.20	23-27				
25	5180B9	9-2-69	22	129	12	8	15	5	8	10	9	16	111:15	120:57	8:57	902.87	8.12	1:00	11.36				(27)				
26	5760	9-2-69	19	100	12	10	14	5	5	10	5	20	174:24	197:37	21:37	2067.88	11.86	:49	7.48	1:19	1	16.44	24				
28	5329R4	9-2-69	21	110	16	9	13	5	7	10	5	18	154:24	164:01	12:01	1674.64	10.85	1:10	15.91	:34	1	5.70	25				
29	4934R4	10-4-68	2	38	2	1	2	1	5	10	8	20	172:35	183:45	15:45	1751.38	10.15	1:26	16.60	:59	1	7.96	26				
30X(K)	5325R4	4-14-69	7	25	9	3	9	-	20	40	20	30	21:21	16:07	:07	168.48	7.89	1:28	16.71	2:24	3	33.96	28				
30X(O)	5516B3	4-14-69	13	63	19	6	13	-	(	3	12	4	58:08	65:47	9:47	741.43	12.75	:28	4.67				29				
									(	3	12	4	91:30	117:19	13:19	1228.97	13.43	(	24.30				30X(K)				
31	5485R	4-8-69	32	169	22	9	21	6	3	7	3	15	195:30	279:16	23:16	2046.75	10.47	(	1:25	5:37	6	50.48	30X(K)				
32	5140R	6-23-66	8	73	6	3	6	-	3	15	3	-	52:21	68:33	4:33	499.34	9.54	(	1:48	3:06	3	44.48	30X(O)				
34	4768	9-5-61	1	24	1	1	1	-	30	30	30	-	12:30	9:47	1:47	141.12	11.29	(	24.30	3:25	3	31.68	31				
35	5275B3	4-4-69	13	89	6	6	7	3	10	11	8	20	96:31	113:33	9:33	916.76	9.54	5:47	5	5:47	5	49.18	32				
36	5277	4-3-67	6	54	4	3	4	2	15	20	15	30	55:24	53:55	5:55	597.15	10.78						33				
37	5729R	9-22-69	4	56	2	2	3	1	15	15	15	30	30:21	33:41	3:41	311.19	10.25						34				
38	5622R2	4-14-69	56	307	34	25	42	10	2	3	1	10	449:13	406:19	48:19	4228.06	9.41	:51	9.58				35				
39	4577	4-4-60	2	55	1	1	1	1	15	15	15	30	30:21	33:41	3:41	311.19	10.25	1:16	13.80	4:41	3	38.12	36				
43	5482	9-5-67	6	58	4	3	3	2	11	20	20	30	18:30	16:35	:35	120.84	6.53	:24	5.62				37				
45	5020R3	3-21-69	19	118	13	7	15	3	3	10	4	18	133:51	166:50	14:50	1071.33	8.00	:36	7.37	2:06	2	27.74	38				
51	5521B3	2-28-69	9	102	11	3	4	2	5	15	12	24	83:10	80:39	8:39	823.38	9.90	:58	8.68	11:40	8	135.90	39				
52	4872R2	2-4-62	2	66	2	1	2	1	10	20	10	20	23:58	17:59	1:59	217.47	9.07	:27	7.56	3:31	4	50.76	40				
53	5515B3	11-21-69	4	64	2	2	2	1	15	15	15	30	32:58	33:51	1:51	328.49	9.96	:17	2.81	2:07	2	22.01	41				
55	5741	6-16-69	26	178	21	9	24	4	2	7	2	15	177:36	226:34	18:34	1447.47	8.15	:50	8.60				42				
66	5522	11-20-67	10	63	7	6	8	1	11	15	9	30	86:24	92:08	12:08	860.82	9.96	1:19	14.45	9:15	8	83.65	43				
71-72 (72)	4887B4	11-21-66	23	178	20	12	23	12	8	15	7	20	278:30	295:26	31:26	2991.98	10.74	1:12	16.16	1:50	1	13.56	71-72				
80	5518	11-20-67	11	127	6	5	7	4	7	8	1	10	88:05	94:39	6:39	537.98	6.11	1:12	17.90				(72)				
81	4935B2	11-15-65	2	41	3	1	1	1	12	30	30	30	22:34	17:06	1:06	224.28	9.94	:28	4.39				80				
84	5370	9-6-66	-	16	-	4	-	-	-	7	-	-	8:28	-	-	50.60	5.98	:22	4.86				81				
85	5653	4-14-69	-	62	-	10	-	-	-	5	-	-	46:48	-	-	261.42	5.58	:22	1.96				84				
89	5800	1-2-70	-	30	-	1	-	-	-	10	-	-	5:33	-	-	25.86	4.66	:29	3.37				85				
STAND BY(Kirk)		9-4-68	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	:06	.65				89				
STAND BY(Ocean)		1-6-69	3	1	2	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-				ST.B.(K)				
SPECIAL CHARTER(a)													14:12	28:23	4:23	62.81	-	-	-				12.12 ST.B.(O)				
SCHEDULE ON OTHER LINES....																				1:10	1	12.12 ST.B.(O)					
SPECIAL CHARTER FOR L.S.....																				(a)2:10	1	36.55(SP.Char)					
TOTALS.....	579	3962	441	253	433	113							4518:18	5147:56	515:56	45665.28	10.09	36:20	449.04	146:36	126	1586.38					
																				(a)	3:58	2	72.95				

(a) Indicates YOUTH COMMUNITY PROGRAM

ST.B.(K)  
 (a) 2:10 1 12.12 ST.B(C)  
 146:36 126 1586.38  
 3:58 2 72.95

Table II-31 (Cont.)

## SAN FRANCISCO MUNICIPAL RAILWAY

## EQUIPMENT and TRAFFIC EQUIPMENT

APPENDIX A -- SCHEDULE DATA

RECAPITULATION AND ANALYSIS OF SCHEDULES

In Effect: 8-25-1964

SCHEDULE CARS										EQUIPMENT										VEHICLE										OVER										SCHED.										ROUND TRIP										LINE																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																									
DATE		TIME		TRIPS		AM		PM		EQUIPMENT		VEHICLE		OVER		SCHED.		ROUND TRIP		LINE		DATE		TIME		TRIPS		AM		PM		EQUIPMENT		VEHICLE		OVER		SCHED.		ROUND TRIP		LINE																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																											
J	5-1-60	2-1-60	20	141	16	11	14	6	4	7	4	20	185:30	190:55	14:55	1527.80	8.04	1:55	8.60	J																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																	</

Table II-32  
ADULT TRANSIT FARES  
and  
BASIC RATES PER HOUR PAID  
PLATFORM PERSONNEL

CITY, STATE	Population Served (Thous.)	Adult Transit Fares		Zone Fares	Transfer Charge(a)	Basic Wage Rates per Hour or Changes known (July 1, 1970)
		Cash	Token			
Kansas City, Mo.	700	50¢	-	Z	5 ¢	\$ (3.80)
Chicago, Ill.	3950	40	-	Z	5	(4.20)
St. Louis, Mo.	1525	40	-	Z	5	(3.71)
Akron, Ohio	449	40	35.	-	2	2.81
Youngstown, Ohio	366	40	35.	-	5	3.00
Cleveland, Ohio	1750	35	-	Z	5	3.56
Pittsburgh, Pa.	1629	35	-	Z	5	3.81
Denver, Colo.	700	35	-	Z	5	(3.43)
Columbus, Ohio	675	35	35.	-	-	3.40
Providence, R. I.	630	35	-	Z	5	(3.27)
Louisville, Ky.	507	35	35.	-	5	(3.17)
Portland, Ore.	400	35	-	Z	-	3.55
Toledo, Ohio	345	35	35.	Z	5	2.96
Houston, Tex.	1330	35	30.	Z	-	3.25
Cincinnati, Ohio	740	35	30.	Z	10	3.25
Atlanta, Ga.	695	35	30.	Z	5	(3.40)
Washington, D. C.	1412	32	32.	-	-	4.27
New York, N. Y.	7782	30	30.	-	-	4.485
Philadelphia, Pa.	2801	30	-	Z	5 (b)	3.38
Los Angeles, Calif.	2800	30	30.	Z	5	(4.00)
Baltimore, Md.	1185	30	30.	Z	5	3.675
Dallas, Tex.	884	30	-	Z	-	2.95
Memphis, Tenn.	670	30	-	Z	5	(3.32)
Buffalo, N. Y.	667	30	30.	Z	5	3.72
Indianapolis, Ind.	550	30	-	-	5	3.20
Phoenix, Ariz.	439	30	-	Z	5	2.50
Detroit, Mich.	2200	30	28.57	Z	5	4.01
Milwaukee, Wis.	1007	30	27.50	Z	-	3.49
Birmingham, Ala.	440	30	27.50	Z	5	(3.17)
San Diego, Calif.	825	30	25.	Z	-	3.655
Fort Worth, Tex.	414	30	25.	Z	2	2.08
Jersey City/Newark, N.J.	5921	25	-	Z	- (c)	3.66
Boston, Mass.	2603	25/20(d)	-	Z	None Issued	4.425
Mpls/St. Paul, Minn.	1200	25	-	Z	-	3.44
Miami, Fla.	1000	25	-	Z	-	3.42
San Antonio, Tex.	786	25	-	Z	2	(2.94)
Seattle, Wash.	574	25	25.	Z	-	(4.14)
Rochester, N.Y.	515	25	25.	Z	2	3.32
Oakland, Calif.	1000	25	20.	Z	-	3.91
SAN FRANCISCO, CALIF.	720	20	20.	-	-	4.2125
New Orleans, La.	630	10	10.	Z	-	3.185

(a) No transfer charge unless otherwise noted (b) One bus route where an additional

(c) Transfer exchanges - 10¢; 20¢ 2¢ transfer charge is made at

(d) Rapid Transit 25¢-local feeder 20¢-No Transfer specified intersections  
March 3, 1970

Source: San Francisco Municipal Railway Schedule and Traffic  
Department

Table II-33  
SUMMARY OF EXPENDITURES

APPROPRIATIONS	EXPENDITURES \$	% of TOTAL
Platform (Operations)	16,622,510	40.7
Shop and Track Employees	5,187,076	12.7
Office	4,170,060	10.2
Sick leave, Holiday and Overtime	799,113	2.0
Fixed charges and Uniforms	5,207,942	12.8
Reconstruction & Replacement	2,466,450	6.0
Transportation Assist. Program	59,940	.2
Miscellaneous	6,305,960	15.4
TOTAL	40,819,051	100.0

GRAPHIC REPRESENTATION



Source: Municipal Railway Annual Report, 1968-1969



Table II-34

STATEMENT OF OPERATIONS BY LINES & ROUTES  
FISCAL YEAR JULY 1, 1968 THRU JUNE 30, 1969

* Type	Lines (#) (r) Vehicle	Operating Revenue	Direct Operating Expense	Provision for Accidents	Provision for Depreciation	Non Operating	Total Net Deductions	Net Income	Miles Operated	Miles Per Hour	Net Income Mile
1	5 105	3,665,299	5,054,253	263,146	180,204	- 34,891	5,462,716	-2,397,417	3,489,358	10.01	- .687
2	3 39	1,579,749	3,054,219	206,909	77,713	- 12,496	3,326,345	-1,746,576	483,112	4.32	- 3.615
3	15 333	7,614,572	10,750,004	474,121	155,253	- 77,322	11,302,056	-4,287,483	7,736,099	8.27	- .554
4	45 537	9,264,032	17,521,549	801,025	50,083	- 113,452	18,261,201	-8,977,172	14,501,330	10.20	- .619
System	66 1,014	20,943,672	36,387,030	1,745,201	463,253	- 243,161	38,352,321	-17,408,648	26,209,899	9.30	- .664

- \* 1 - Electric Street Car  
2 - Cable Street Car  
3 - Trolley Coach  
4 - Motor Coach

Source: San Francisco Municipal Railroad, Annual Report, 1968-69

Table II-35  
MUNI ROUTE OPERATING RESULTS  
YEAR ROUND JUNE 30, 1965

<u>Route</u> <u>Totals</u>	Operating Results Per Mile			Operating Results Per Hour		
	<u>Operating</u> <u>Revenue</u>	<u>Total</u> <u>Costs</u>	<u>Margin</u> <u>Per Mile</u>	<u>Operating</u> <u>Revenue</u>	<u>Total</u> <u>Costs</u>	<u>Margin</u> <u>Per Hour</u>
Arterial Routes	\$ .8005	1.0849	(.2844)	7.5532	10.2365	(2.6833)
Crosstown Routes	.5524	.9366	(.3842)	5.1256	8.6914	(3.5658)
Feeder or Shuttle	.3509	.9432	(.5923)	3.2647	8.7754	(5.5107)
System Total	.7519	1.0609	(.3090)	7.0754	9.9838	(2.9084)

( ) indicates deficit

Source: Simpson and Curtin, Coordinated Transit for The San Francisco Bay Area, now to 1975.

Table 27: pg. 84-5.

Table II-36  
MUNI PATRONAGE AND SERVICE  
BY TYPE OF ROUTE (YEARS ENDING JUNE 30)

<u>Type of Route</u>	<u>Revenue Passenger 1965</u>	<u>% Change 1960-1965</u>
Arterial (34 Routes)	124,241,188 (87.7%)	-0.80%
Crosstown (7 Routes)	12,615,534 (8.9%)	-1.88
Feeder or Shuttle (12 Routes)	3,523,424 (2.5%)	+7.44
Other Service (Charter, Baseball, & Cable Emergency)	1,344,762 (0.9%)	
Total	141,724,908	-0.71%

Arterial: Serve Central Business District

Crosstown: Connect Number of Arterials

Feeder: Bring Passengers to Arterial or Shuttle

Source: Simpson and Curtin, Coordinated Transit for San Francisco Bay Area, now to 1975.

Tables 14 & 15, pp. 52-53.

## BART ROUTE TO AIRPORT

Route

The most feasible route for the proposed extension, taking into account economic and engineering factors, patronage potentials, and city and county land use plans, is shown in the figure which follows. This route would start at the present Knowles Avenue BART station and would use about 7,000 ft. of the Southern Pacific branch line right-of-way to the vicinity of A street in Daly City.

The alignment would then stretch about 1,700 ft. across land in private ownership before entering the median of El Camino Real. It would follow the median to the intersection with Mission Road where the alignment would cross about one-half mile of privately held land to reach the Old Market Street Railway right-of-way now owned by San Francisco. From this point on to the airport, the right-of-way is generally open. It is approximately 60 ft. wide except for infringements caused by minor private improvements and local street widening programs. The width required to accommodate BART trunk line facilities is normally 50 ft., whether at-grade or on structure. Also, the Southern Pacific branch line is adjacent to the San Francisco right-of-way, adding approximately 60 ft. to the width of open right-of-way to San Bruno. The unusual opportunity these two adjacent open rights-of-way provide for joint planning of park development in this corridor should be considered early in a project to extend rapid transit into San Mateo County.

Several alternatives have been proposed for methods of entry into airport property. Only one, however, seems completely feasible and compatible with airport redevelopment plans. This alignment crosses above the Southern Pacific mainline in the vicinity of San Felipe Avenue in San Bruno, and continues above-grade into the airport and into an end-of-line station in the sixth/seventh level area of the



Central Space. This station would serve air passengers and employees in the terminal area. Employees destined for other areas of the airport could be served by bus shuttles from either Tanforan or San Felipe stations. This alignment serves nearly 40% of employees and 90% of total rapid transit demand.

Passengers' walking distance from either the 7th level main hub or People Mover System, through baggage claim, and onto the BART train would be approximately 150 ft.

Source: Stanford Graduate School of Business Study



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